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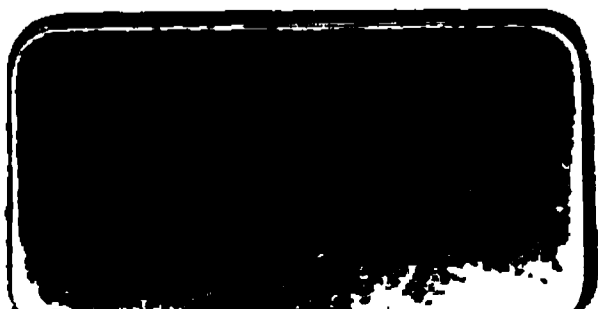
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HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

JANUARY, 1842.

ART. I.—IMPOLICY OF COUNTERVAILING DUTIES.*

IN the twenty-second chapter of the First Book of Kings, we read that Ahab, the king of Israel, invited Jehoshaphat, the king of Judah, to go with him to battle to Ramoth-Gilead, and that the latter consented to go, but at the same time expressed a wish that the former would consult his prophets as to the probable issue of the expedition. We further read, that in compliance with this request, Ahab consulted four hundred prophets, who assured him of victory, but that Jehoshaphat having doubts of the truth of their prediction, and suspecting, perhaps, that they were more of court sycophants and politicians than prophets, was not entirely satisfied with their reply. The following question will show the sequel :

“And Jehoshaphat said, Is there not here a prophet of the Lord besides, that we might inquire of him?”

“And the King of Israel said unto Jehoshaphat, There is yet one man, Micaiah, the son of Imlah, by whom we may inquire of the Lord: but I hate him; for he doth not prophesy good concerning me, but evil.”

A dislike to hear the truth when opposed to one's interests or prejudices, has always existed in the world, and may be considered to be the cause of a large portion of the mischievous errors which so universally prevail. The fault of Ahab, recorded in the chapter referred to, is the fault of nine men out of ten at the present day, who, instead of applying to the sources where truth is most likely to be found, with the honest intention of being guided by its dictates, endeavor to find false prophets who will prophesy unto them “smooth things,” in order to confirm them in their preconceived

* This article was prepared with the view of its being delivered in public as a lecture, but the state of the health of the writer, Condry Raguet, Esq., President of the Chamber of Commerce of Philadelphia, and well known as the author of “A Treatise on Currency and Banking,” and of “The Principles of Free Trade Illustrated,” prevented it. In reference to this last mentioned work, we have to say, that copies of it are for sale at the office of this magazine, as well as copies of the “Financial Register,” a valuable work of reference published under the editorship of the same distinguished gentleman.

errors, and minister to their ambition and avarice. Most especially is this true amongst the people of the United States, in reference to those two most important branches of knowledge, the science of government, and the science of political economy; and hence have arisen in the one case, parties which have no fixed principles of action, and in the other, a school of theorists, who propose to make a nation rich by the adoption of measures which can only produce an opposite effect.

The great object of all scientific investigation, is the attainment of truth. Truth is the foundation upon which all useful knowledge must rest for its support, and without which neither physical, moral, or political science can have a substantial existence. Hence it is, that philosophers in all ages have devoted their time and energies to the laborious task of ascertaining the laws by which the world of matter and the world of mind are governed, and the truths which they have respectively arrived at in their researches constitute the science of that particular department of knowledge.

Between the study, however, of the physical sciences, and that of some of the moral sciences, there is a wide difference as regards the faithfulness with which the process is performed. In the investigation of the former, that is, of the physical sciences, the student embarks in his labors with a single eye to the establishment of truth. He has no interest or prejudice operating on his mind, which inclines him to pervert or to mystify the facts which he discovers, so as to make them subservient to the confirmation of any preconceived opinions. To him it is of no sort of consequence whether the facts sustain one particular theory or another. If he be a chemist, of what moment is it to him whether the atmospheric air we breathe is composed of certain gases in this proportion or in that; whether the admixture of acids and alkalies will neutralize each other, or whether certain chemical combinations will produce results more or less important to the arts or to the preservation or destruction of health or life? If he be a naturalist, of what concern is it to him, whether birds, quadrupeds, insects, and fishes have any particular set of habits or instincts? If he be a mechanic, of what consequence is it to him that air, fire, and water have properties applicable to the production of power in this or that particular ratio, or by this or that particular combination? The mathematician cares not whether any two sides of a triangle are greater or less than the third, or whether the three sides of a triangle are together equal to or greater than two right angles. The astronomer considers it of no moment to him, whether the earth revolve on its axis, or stand still; whether the planets move around the sun, or the sun around the planets; whether the fixed stars are ten thousand miles distant from our earth, or ten thousand millions of miles; or whether the moon be a body of earth and water, or made of green cheese. All that any of these philosophers desires to know, or has any concern about, is, what are the facts of the case as relates to his particular study; and when these are clearly discovered, he promptly embraces them, however strongly they may militate against any previously entertained convictions.

The same thing may be said of researches in all the familiar practical operations of life. To the student of law it is of no sort of moment, whether the laws of primogeniture or of the equal distribution of the estate of an intestate prevail in this country or in that. To the student of medicine it is of no consequence whether this effect or

that will be produced by any particular compound. To the farmer it is of no concern, whether the proper season for sowing his grain happen in one month or another, or whether this or that particular mode of employing a day's work is best adapted to give fertility to his land. To the merchant it is of no consequence whether the articles in which he deals are to be obtained upon the best terms in this country or in that. To the manufacturer it is of no moment whether the best market for his wares is to be found in one quarter of the world or another; and to the mechanic it is of no consequence whether the best tools of his trade be made of one sort of iron or another. All that any of these people care about, is, what are the facts of the case; and when those facts are once ascertained, they adopt them as a part of the truths which constitute their particular science or art.

And here, by way of digression, let me remark that the philosophy of these facts is what is called "a theory;" and hence it may appear, how little those who delight in the name of *practical men* understand of what they pretend to teach, when they assert, with an air of triumph, as if they put an end to all doubt on the subject, "one fact is worth a thousand theories." Now, as there can be no set of facts without an appropriate theory, the meaning of this assertion, if it have any meaning at all, must be, that the fact which they rely upon, is worth a thousand theories that belong to another and entirely different set of facts. Thus they will tell you, that a penknife can be manufactured in Pittsburg, entirely of American iron, and of a piece of American buck's horn of scarcely any value, by the application of American industry, which shall sell for its weight in silver. The theory to which this fact belongs, is, that valuable penknives can be produced at Pittsburg by the process called manufacture, which nobody denies; but this fact does not overthrow the theory which asserts, that by the process called commerce, also carried on by American industry, an equally good knife could be had at Pittsburg, *were it not for the duty*, for two thirds of its weight in silver; the only difference being, that in one case the raw materials consist of iron and buck's horn, and in the other case of flour shipped to New Orleans, and there converted into cotton to be sent to Europe.

Were such an honest spirit of investigation, and such a prompt yielding to the force of truth, which characterizes the philosophers above described, exhibited by political inquirers, the science of government would be rendered as simple as any other science, and the world would experience the blessings of sound legislation instead of the miseries resulting from ignorance and quackery. Unfortunately, however, this is not the case. Self-interest and the hopes of political preferment, exercise a most potent influence over this subject; and of the few who profess to have turned their attention to the study of political philosophy, a large proportion have not done it that they might arrive at the truth, but merely that they might find confirmation in sophistry and perversion for some preconceived theory. Hence come tariffs for the encouragement of the industry of certain classes of persons to the injury of that of all others—vicious systems of banking, to promote the interests of speculators without capital—wasteful expenditures of public money and of private fortunes in unproductive canals and railroads—poor-laws for the support, in magnificent palaces, of idlers and drunkards—usury laws for the oppression of borrowers and the banishment of capital—exorbitant taxation for the support of political jobbers and

favorites—corporations for various objects, divested of individual liability—lien laws, which transfer to one class of the creditors of a bankrupt property that should belong to all—and a hundred other measures equally productive of mischief.

It would seem from the indifference with which the science of political economy, which is a most important branch of political philosophy, is regarded by the intelligent and wealthy portion of our community, that they consider the great interests of a nation to be of too trifling an account, to render it an object for them to make it a study. They do not even consider, if we may judge from the experience of the last six disastrous years, the preservation of their own property from annihilation by bad investments, or oppressive taxation for improper objects, to be worthy of their attention; and hence we see that men are frequently selected to make laws for the country, who are totally destitute of the proper qualifications. We may depend upon it, that “unless statesmen become philosophers, or philosophers become statesmen,” we shall never see any improvement in our condition. One financial crisis will perpetually follow on the heels of another, whilst legislation in favor of particular interests will be as perpetually disturbing the ordinary pursuits of industry, and the profitable employment of capital.

With these preliminary remarks, I now come to the main object of this lecture, which is, to endeavor to prove that countervailing duties, which have been recently urged upon congress as a measure of sound policy, are invariably prejudicial to every country that adopts them, and would be as much so to ours as to any other. And here I must appeal to the hearer to divest his mind, for the moment, of all preconceived opinions which are at variance with this doctrine, and to follow me in the investigation with the same exemption from interested motives, as if he were listening to a lecture upon any branch of natural philosophy. In no other way can the truths of political economy be reached. Investigations, as I have already said, can never be productive of conviction, unless the inquiring party is in search of the truth for its own sake, and considers himself bound not to reject conclusions which manifestly flow from premises established by irrefutable arguments. It is not what we would *wish* political economy to establish, but what it does actually establish, which is the object of our researches; and if any of those who hear me have embraced opinions in opposition to the doctrine I propose to maintain, I would respectfully ask them, whether they have not taken for granted the very point in dispute, rather than arrived at those opinions by a regular process of analytical investigation?—whether they have not *jumped* to their conclusions, instead of approaching them by the slow and cautious steps that can alone give them a firm and lasting foothold?

The advocates of the restrictive system in the United States, may be divided into the four following classes:

First. Those who honestly believe that to exclude, by high or prohibitory duties, foreign commodities which come into competition with similar commodities that can be produced or manufactured at home, even though the cost of the latter should greatly exceed that of the former, is positively beneficial to the country, and augments the national wealth.

Secondly. Those who have never troubled their heads about a scientific investigation of the matter, but who, for political objects, or through interested motives, have preferred to remain in the dark, rather than be en-

lightened, for fear that the truth would militate against their advancement as politicians, or take money out of their pockets as editors of newspapers, or as parties protected by the duty.

Thirdly. Those who believe in the principles of free trade, but who persuade themselves, or try to persuade themselves, that if a nation be once entrammelled by the restrictive system, it is her interest to adhere to it, rather than incur the losses to vested interests that might be consequent upon its abandonment : and—

Fourthly. Those who believe that the principles of free trade are perfectly true, but that it is injurious to a country to adopt them, unless other nations, with which she has commercial intercourse, adopt them also.

The *first* mentioned of these classes, who have derived their doctrines chiefly from the writings of superficial or interested reasoners, or from the speeches of political aspirants in congress and in the state legislatures, or from the effusions of ignorant or partisan editors, and not from books of science, has happily been reduced to a comparatively small number by the discussions which have taken place since the appearance of the celebrated "Boston Report," in 1828,* which led the way in clearing up the mental fog that for several previous years had obscured the minds of so many worthy citizens. It rarely happens, at this day, that any writer or speaker, who has any pretensions to knowledge, excepting those who belong to our second class, is willing to hazard his reputation as a sound thinker, by advocating the doctrine that a nation grows rich by compelling itself to buy dear things, when they can be had cheap. The operation of the British corn laws, in making the British people eat dear bread, is so manifestly seen by all to be injurious to the nation at large, that reflecting men could not fail to perceive that a policy in this country, which should compel the American people to wear dear clothes, would necessarily be injurious to *them* ; and to this view of the subject may be traced many of those changes of opinion that have diminished the ranks of this division of the restrictive party.

As regards the *second* class above mentioned, that is, interested parties, their numbers, for aught we know, may be as great as ever ; but as their opinions are not fixed, and are liable to change, just as their interests, or rather what they fancy to be their interests, are changed, they are not in any desire to be enlightened, and cannot, therefore, be reasoned with. They are content with their present creed, and do not wish to run the risk of having it disturbed, by listening to arguments in favor of free trade, for fear that they may be forced into conclusions which may be at variance with their interests, or party advancement.

The *third* class, that is, those who advocate an adherence to restrictive laws for fear of disturbing existing interests, can hardly have examined the tendency of their views. Their doctrine, if carried out to its legitimate extent, would entirely prevent the advancement of society in its means of improvement and of accumulating capital. It would inculcate the idea, that railroads and canals ought not to be constructed in countries where capital had been invested in turnpike roads, on account of their tendency to destroy the value of the latter as sources of income to their proprietors. It would oppose the employment of steamboats for the conveyance of passengers on rivers, upon the ground that, by drawing off

* By Henry Lee, Esq.

travellers from the land, the effect would be to diminish the value of property in taverns and farms, on public roads. It would prevent every advancement in manufactures to be accomplished by the substitution of new labor-saving machines for old ones, upon the principle that the old ones would have to be thrown away. It would, in fine, be at war with the march of improvement in all its departments, and make the world stop where it is; and hence is so manifestly unsound, that it is difficult to imagine how any man of comprehensive mind, and free from the influence of existing vested interests, can seriously advocate it.

The *fourth* and last class, however, are of a different character. They embrace a large body of intelligent men, who have minds open to conviction. It is to this class alone I offer the following remarks. My design is to endeavor to convince them, that if ninety-nine out of a hundred nations adopt the restrictive system, it is the true policy of the remaining one nation to adhere to the principles of free trade. And here, at the offset, I will observe, that if this proposition cannot be demonstrated to the satisfaction of every unprejudiced man, who considers himself bound to admit the conclusions which result from arguments that cannot be logically controverted, I would agree to burn all the books that were ever written upon political economy, from Adam Smith down to the present day. Upon the making out of this case, I am willing to stake the whole cause of free trade. A greater concession than this can hardly be demanded by any generous opponent; and as, in discussions of this nature, a particular case must be taken for illustration, I have chosen one, as appropriate to the subject, which is familiar to you all—the trade between the United States and Buenos Ayres.

Everybody, acquainted with the productions of these two countries, knows, that they are both agricultural, that they can both raise wheat and cattle in sufficient abundance to afford bread and animal food for the support of the whole of their respective populations. Between two such countries, situate by the route of the ocean seven thousand miles apart, it would appear to a person not conversant with the details of commerce, that no trade in such agricultural products could be carried on to advantage between them. It would be difficult for him to imagine, how such bulky commodities could be made to defray the expenses of freight for so long a voyage, and after paying insurance and commissions, to leave a satisfactory profit for the shipper. Difficult, however, as the problem would be to him, it would not be so to mercantile sagacity. The merchants would soon discover that each country had advantages over the other in regard to some particular branch of agriculture, which would make it most profitable for each to devote itself exclusively, as regards their interchange of products, to that particular branch in which it had the advantage. Hence we see, that the farmers of the United States have found it their interest to cultivate wheat, to be manufactured into flour, rather than cattle, for exportation to Buenos Ayres; whilst the farmers of Buenos Ayres have found it their interest to cultivate cattle for the sake of their hides, rather than wheat, for exportation to the United States. By this division of employments, the farmer of the United States gets more hides from the cultivation of his land, than he would if he raised cattle instead of wheat; whilst the farmer of Buenos Ayres gets more flour than he could if he raised wheat instead of cattle.

In a state of perfect freedom of trade, that is, in such a condition of

things, as that the United States should impose no duty whatever upon the hides of Buenos Ayres, and that Buenos Ayres should impose no duty whatever upon the wheat or flour of the United States, the commerce between the two countries would experience its largest development. I do not mean to say, that all the hides consumed in the United States would be imported from Buenos Ayres, or that all the flour and wheat consumed in Buenos Ayres would be imported from the United States. The United States would necessarily produce all the black cattle which they could raise more advantageously than wheat, and Buenos Ayres would necessarily produce flour and wheat upon that portion of her soil that was fitter for the plough than for grazing. What I mean to say is, that there would be the fullest exchange of the surplus products of each country, which it would be for the interest of both parties to make; and beyond this, no one will contend that exchanges ought to be made.

Now, let us suppose, that under this perfect freedom of trade, the farmers of the United States should find annually a demand in Buenos Ayres for a hundred thousand barrels of flour, and that the farmers of Buenos Ayres should find a demand in the United States for three hundred thousand hides: the two commodities being supposed to be equivalents of each other in that proportion, and the exchange affording to each party the usual profits of trade.

Let us, then, suppose that Buenos Ayres, either for purposes of revenue, or with the view of benefiting the owners of her wheat lands, by enabling them to get a higher price for their grain, should impose a duty of twenty per cent upon the flour of the United States, what would be the consequences? These are easily to be seen.

The *first* would be a rise in the price of flour at Buenos Ayres, foreign as well as domestic, after the lapse of a little time, if not immediately, to an extent equal to the duty; for it is very clear, that if such increased price could not be obtained, the foreign supply would cease, for the simple reason, that if, at the old price, shipments of flour, when free from duty, did no more than yield the usual profits of trade, they could not yield the same profits under a duty of twenty per cent without such an increased price; and without full remuneration, no trade can be long continued.

The *second* consequence would be, a diminished demand for the flour of the United States, owing to the augmented price; for nothing is clearer than that the consumption of commodities of every description, whether they be articles of luxury, comfort, or necessity, is influenced by the price, and that it is wholly impossible to sell as many things at high prices as at low prices, as every wine-dealer knows who sells a basket of champaign wine, as every farmer knows who sells a pound of butter, as every baker knows who sells a loaf of bread, and as even every apothecary knows who sells a dose of physic.

The *third* consequence would be, that the raisers of cattle in Buenos Ayres would experience a diminished demand for their hides; for as the second consequence would leave a less fund as the nett proceeds of the sale of the flour of the United States, there would not be so large an amount to be invested in hides. It is true, that in the first instance, owing to a superabundant supply, the price of hides might fall, but this diminution of price would only continue until the new supply should have become adjusted to the new demand—a remunerating price, as already said, being an inseparable condition of all continued supplies.

The *fourth* consequence would be, that the people of Buenos Ayres would be obliged to pay for their domestic flour, as well as for their foreign flour, an additional price, equal to the duty, which would not only restrict them in the consumption of an article of the first necessity, but restrict them in their consumption of other things; for if they have more to pay for bread, they must have less to expend in other articles.

Whatever might be the precise extent to which the trade would fall off by the imposition of this duty, it will be sufficient for our purpose of illustration, to estimate it at twenty per cent; and assuming this to be the proportion, it would appear that, under the new regulation, there would be a sale at Buenos Ayres of only eighty thousand barrels of American flour, and a purchase, in exchange therefor, of only two hundred and forty thousand hides. Such a diminution of the trade, it is manifest, would inflict an injury upon the growers of cattle in Buenos Ayres, as well as upon the growers of wheat in the United States, by restricting the market of each. The aggregate product of the land in both countries would be diminished, and the incomes of both people would be lessened, inasmuch as neither would have as great a demand as before for that particular species of product which it could raise to the best advantage.

The theory I am about to attempt to controvert is, that in consequence of Buenos Ayres imposing a duty of twenty per cent upon the flour of the United States, by which the latter are deprived of the sale of twenty thousand barrels of flour, it is for the interest of the United States that a countervailing duty be laid upon the hides of Buenos Ayres. Of such a step, let us examine the result.

Let us suppose, for example, that the United States should impose a countervailing duty of twenty per cent upon the hides of Buenos Ayres: what would be the consequences? These, it is manifest, could not be different from those described in the former case. They would be—

First, an ultimate rise in the price of hides in the United States, foreign and domestic, to an extent equal to the duty; for if this were not the case, the foreign supply would cease; for it is very clear that hides could not be afforded, subject to a duty of twenty per cent, and yield the usual profits of trade, if that was all they could do whilst subject to no duty.

The *second* consequence would be, a diminished demand in the United States for the hides of Buenos Ayres, owing to this rise of price.

The *third* would be, that the growers of wheat in the United States would experience a diminished demand for their flour for exportation to Buenos Ayres.

And the *fourth* would be, that the people of the United States would have to pay for their leather made from domestic hides, as well as for that made of foreign hides, an additional price equal to the duty.

Estimating the effects of this countervailing duty, for the sake of round numbers, as equal to another twenty per cent diminution in the original amount of the trade, the new posture of affairs would stand thus: the United States would now import from Buenos Ayres twenty per cent less in number of hides than before, and, as a necessary consequence, would export to Buenos Ayres twenty per cent less in barrels of flour than before. In other words, the exchanges between the two countries would now be reduced to 60,000 barrels of flour, and 180,000 hides; for there are no truths in any science more demonstrable, than that the commerce of every country is an exchange of equivalents or equal values at the

place where the exchanges are made, and that "a nation that will not buy, cannot sell," and that "a nation that cannot sell, cannot buy."

I have thus shown, that by the countervailing duty above supposed, the United States have lost instead of gained. They have, it is true, injured the agricultural interests of Buenos Ayres, by cutting them off of a sale of sixty thousand hides; but as a concomitant and inseparable effect of this operation, they have injured their own agricultural interests to the same extent, by cutting their farmers off of a sale of twenty thousand barrels of flour. The game they have been playing, is precisely the same as that which would take place, if one man had cut off one of his own fingers, and in the act of so doing, had accidentally cut off one from the hand of another person; and the other person, by way of retaliation, should cut off a second finger from each of the wounded hands—one from his own, and one from that of his antagonist.

It would be useless to pursue the illustration further. Should Buenos Ayres retaliate upon the United States for this duty on her hides, by adding a second duty, equal to another twenty per cent of the original amount of the trade, on American flour, she would be able to sell only one hundred and twenty thousand hides; and every repetition of the folly by either party, could only have the effect of cutting off some more of their own fingers. By such a policy nothing can possibly be gained; and it is very evident that, pushed to its utmost extent, it must end in the complete annihilation of all trade between the two countries. And how, then, would stand the account between the parties? Why, they would look at each other like a couple of idiots, for having, by their own acts, crippled their own prosperity, and retarded their advancement in wealth, by compelling each other to divert the land and labor of their respective farmers from the most profitable branches of business to which they could be applied, to pursuits of a less profitable character—that is, pursuits which they would never have engaged in under the system of free trade.

Now what is true of the trade between the United States and Buenos Ayres, is true of the trade between every nation and all the rest of the world. No nation can for any long period together buy to a greater amount than she can sell, and Providence has very wisely ordered, that the power to sell is, in a great measure, left in the hands of each nation. By abstaining from protecting or countervailing duties, it is only liable to the diminution of trade resulting from the folly of others. By resorting to them, it voluntarily aggravates the evil. Had the United States, in the case supposed, avoided imposing the countervailing duty upon the hides of Buenos Ayres, she would have had a continued demand for eighty thousand barrels of flour, which, although not equally beneficial as a sale of a hundred thousand barrels, was still better than a sale of sixty thousand. It is as sound policy for nations as for individuals not to refuse to sell to others what can be raised to better advantage than other things, merely because the others, through fancied self-interest or ignorance, or even spite, are not willing to buy the whole quantity of such things that could by possibility be raised. I apprehend that a sensible baker would not refuse to sell a loaf of bread to a family that baked at home the principal part of the bread they consumed, or that a butcher would not refuse to sell a small joint of meat to a man merely because he was not willing to buy a large one; and how a nation, because another will not take a hundred thousand barrels of flour, but only eighty thousand, should expect to gain by

depriving the other of the power of buying more than sixty thousand, is an enigma only to be explained upon the principle of an utter ignorance of the operations of commerce. And here I will take occasion to remark, that the tendency of the restrictive system, in all its various applications to nations as well as to individuals, is to diminish the products of industry, and thereby to inflict an injury upon the whole human race, precisely as would happen if all nations in their wisdom, with the view of encouraging their own domestic industry, should destroy all the wind and water mills in the country, and permit no grain to be ground but by hand-mills.

If I have been successful in making out my case, the application of the same principles to any other trade than the one I have referred to, can readily be made by the hearer. If it be asserted, that because Great Britain, by her impolitic and oppressive corn laws, deprives the United States of the sale of half a million of barrels of flour per annum, our interests would be promoted by imposing high duties upon her cotton and woollen goods, the answer is, that because Great Britain is silly enough to compel her subjects to pay four pence for a twopenny loaf, and to take from us our flour only in unfavorable seasons, let us not be guilty of equal folly in compelling our own citizens to pay double price for a suit of clothes, and cut off our southern planters from a sale of their cotton, thereby depriving them of the means of buying the very flour of the north which the British refuse to take. If it be asserted, that because the German States will buy, per annum, only twenty-eight thousand hogsheads of tobacco,* when we could easily supply them with fifty thousand, our interests would be promoted by imposing heavy duties upon, and thereby diminishing the demand for, their manufactures, the answer is, that because Germany is not sufficiently enlightened to see the luxury of cheap segars, snuff, and tobacco, that is no reason why she should not be indulged in as large a supply of the delicious weed as her notions of policy or self-interest will lead her to take, and especially as our refusal to buy her manufactures, which we want more than tobacco, will of necessity oblige her to diminish her already limited demand. If it be asserted that because France will only take from us fifteen thousand tierces of rice,† when we could easily furnish double the quantity, we should be benefited by imposing high duties upon her silks and wines; the answer is, that because the French do not love rice puddings as much as we should wish them to do, that is no reason why they should be deprived of the privilege of eating all they want, especially as by our refusing to take the things they have to give in exchange for it, which we find it most for our interest to take, we should cut off our South Carolina planters from the sale of a portion of what they now have a demand for, and thus diminish their means of purchasing the products of the northern states.

If any proof were wanting of the gross impolicy of restrictive and counter-restrictive laws, the trade between Great Britain and France presents the most striking example. We here see two great nations, containing populations of twenty-seven and thirty-three millions, respectively, possessing a variety of soil and climate eminently adapting them for a vast extent of

* The total export of tobacco from the United States for the year ending 30th Sept., 1840, was 119,484 hogsheads, of which 28,138 went to Germany.

† The total export of rice during the same year was 101,660 tierces, of which 14,212 went to France and her dependencies.

exchanges mutually profitable, but which, by their impolitic and silly laws, have restricted their commerce to an annual exchange of less than fifteen millions of dollars. And if any proof were wanting of the great benefits flowing from the most free and uninterrupted trade, we have it in the open and unrestricted intercourse which happily subsists between the different states of our confederacy. Had not the constitution most wisely prohibited the states from the exercise of a power which they fully possessed prior to the adoption of that instrument, from laying any duties or excises without the consent of congress, except so far as may be necessary to defray the expenses of their inspection laws, our condition at this day would have been widely different from what we now find it. By this enlightened provision, the commerce between the states has been as free as air, and to this fact we may ascribe a large share of the prosperity which has marked our career from the year 1789, a prosperity unknown to those continental European states which have been guilty of the suicidal act of placing trammels upon every commercial movement which had for its object the exchange of their mutual surplus products.

To make this more evident, let us suppose, for the sake of example, that each state had been left by the constitution at liberty to impose duties upon all commodities brought within its limits, what should we have seen? A boat load of water-melons, or cantelopes, or peaches, or sweet-potatoes could not have been landed in Philadelphia from New Jersey, on the opposite side of the Delaware, without obliging the captain to make an entry at the customhouse, take an oath, and pay a duty. In return for this, New Jersey would have imposed a duty on the anthracite coal of Pennsylvania, and upon all the commodities purchased in Philadelphia, foreign and domestic, by her country storekeepers, and even by the very country people who had sold their meats, vegetables, and fruits in the Philadelphia market. We should have had duties on Virginia coal to protect the Pennsylvania coal miners to the destruction of our gas works, and to the injury of those artisans for whose business anthracite coal will not answer as well as bituminous. We should have had duties upon potatoes from Maine, upon cotton goods, fish, oil, and spermaceti candles from Massachusetts, upon woollen fabrics from Rhode Island, upon onions and wooden clocks from Connecticut, upon black cattle and barley from New York, upon tobacco and oysters from Maryland, upon corn and oats from Delaware, upon tar, pitch, and lumber from North Carolina, upon rice from South Carolina, upon cotton from Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Tennessee, upon sugar from Louisiana, upon hemp from Kentucky, upon buffalo-skins from Missouri, upon lead from Illinois, upon pork, bacon, lard, and live hogs from Indiana and Ohio, upon flour from Michigan, and in fine upon every article produced in all these states, for the food, clothing, or use of man. In return for this, we should have been hedged in all around by countervailing duties, which would have destroyed or greatly diminished the export demand for the immense variety of articles of agriculture and manufacturing production, which our soil, climate, industry, and capital can so abundantly furnish. In other words, we should have been driven into that blessed state of "independence on foreign nations," which some of our politicians describe as the *ne plus ultra* of national prosperity, and which was once admirably described by a southern statesman, in the pithy toast—"Robinson Crusoe in his goat-skins." Yes, that celebrated character on his desert island was a perfect embodiment of what

was once known as "The American System," and had each of the states of the Union been permitted to adopt that system, and to regulate its commerce with the rest, each one would have been driven within its own shell, and the consequence would inevitably have been, perpetual quarrels and wars, with all the drawbacks to the accumulation of wealth, resulting from lines of customhouses, standing armies, and taxation.

But, it may be replied to all this, that by adopting countervailing duties against those nations which impose heavy duties upon our productions, we may compel them to abandon their course. This position, I am aware, has a powerful feature to recommend it to popular favor, and which is not lost sight of by the advocates of the protective policy. It makes a strong appeal to the spirit of revenge which is as apt to actuate a silly government as an individual, and which, when indulged in, is certain to blind the eyes of those who come under its influence to all its consequences. But I apprehend that this feeling of revenge would not have place if the public mind was sufficiently enlightened to perceive, what is the true state of the case, that its indulgence would be just as senseless and absurd, as would the revenge of a man who should resolve to cut off his own nose to spite his face.

And here I may state, that in this position I am sustained by an authority, which, considering the source whence it emanates, is of some practical value. It is known to the public that France has taken great umbrage at the passage of our late act of congress, by which, for purposes of revenue, a duty of twenty per cent has been imposed upon certain French products which were before free of duty, or subject to a very small one. Against this measure the Paris journals loudly protested, and threats of retaliation were widely proclaimed. Sober second thoughts will probably succeed to these first ebullitions of revenge, as may very fairly be inferred from the following extracts from *La Presse* :

"It was at first contemplated by the French government to retaliate upon the United States for their late revenue bill by imposing a tax upon American cotton. It was soon discovered, however, that such a measure would be injurious to France herself, by forcing her to buy at a dearer rate an article with which she cannot dispense.

"There is another mode of making reprisals which has been more favorably received, particularly in the seaports, and which the government is disposed to adopt—namely, to withdraw from the United States the benefit of the treaty concluded by M. Hyde de Neuville, dated the 24th of June, 1822—a treaty which establishes a perfect reciprocity in the advantages granted to either flag in the French and American ports. We, for our part, are fully convinced of the impolicy of such a measure. It would not remedy the evil—it would only aggravate it.

"The system of reprisal forms part of a development of the principles of political economy which we disapprove. It is in fact clear, that if we levy dues upon American bottoms, the price of freight will be increased; and as cotton is indispensable for our manufactures, and we cannot obtain it except in America, it follows that an increased expense of freight would fall upon the consumers.

"Another fact speaks for itself. Before the treaty of 1822 there were but 14 French vessels engaged in the North American trade—27 American and 102 foreign; whilst in the year 1839 there were 84 French and 146 American ships engaged in the same trade."

It is undoubtedly true, that cases may be supposed in which a countervailing duty might produce the effect desired ; but experience shows that the experiment is too dangerous to be resorted to, without something like a positive conviction that it will be successful. That each nation has the political right to regulate its foreign commerce as it pleases, cannot be questioned ; and whether its object in imposing duties, be the collection of revenue, a grant in favor of particular classes of monopolists, or the moral reform of the people, it is a matter of the propriety of which it alone has the power to decide. How far a nation would be justified, upon general principles of public morals, in endeavoring to force another into the adoption of a policy which it might conceive to be adverse to its interests or views of public duty, might well be a question ; and when we perceive that Providence has not given us the power thus to violate the liberty of another nation, without inflicting on ourselves an injury quite equal to the one we desire to redress, we have good grounds for saying, that the question may be considered as decided in the negative. But, independent of this moral consideration, there are others which are sufficient to put the matter at rest. If the offending nation be ignorant, or proud, or held in bondage by powerful interests, which control its legislation, (and what nation on the earth is not one or the other ?) so far from being driven from its ground by a countervailing duty, it would be more apt to make its restrictions tighter, by a retaliatory law. It is quite probable that the innumerable laws which now limit the trade between France and England to one tenth of the amount that might have been carried on under wiser counsels, were originally single statutes, in mutual retaliation for the previous acts of each other ; and such a fate, I apprehend, would be likely to await any nation which should pursue a similar course. Nations, like individuals, must be reasoned with rather than chastised ; and the only way in which they can be induced to adopt any new permanent policy, is to prove to them that it is for their interest to do it. Should the French government retaliate upon ours in either of the modes above suggested, do you think it probable that we should be driven from our duty of twenty per cent ?

And here I will repeat, that it may not be forgotten, that whilst the experiment is in progress, the nation imposing the countervailing duty, is a loser by the operation, as has been abundantly shown in a former part of this lecture ; whilst, at the same time, it is building up at home a new set of vested interests to supply the articles excluded by the countervailing duty, or some kindred production that would not otherwise have been thought of ; which interests would be opposed to, and might prevent a repeal of the countervailing duty in the event of its having accomplished its object. I need not say, that in such an event, the condition of that nation would be infinitely worse off than it was before.

And now, in conclusion, I will make a short appeal in favor of the political economists who, in our country, as well as in others, are literally proscribed by all who consider their political or pecuniary interests to be injured by their writings. They are denounced as visionaries and theorists, whose views have no practical bearing, and whose opinions belong to the closet, and not to the counting-house or workshop. And who are these reviled individuals ? For the most part, they are men of education, who have devoted many years of their lives to the study of political economy as a science, without any influences or prejudices operating upon their

minds to lead them to false conclusions. As citizens of the country in which they reside, they can have no motives adverse to the prosperity and happiness of the nation of which they compose a part ; and as they cheerfully concede to others the merit of best understanding subjects, to the study of which they have devoted their time and attention, are they unreasonable in urging their own claims to be heard upon matters with which they profess to be acquainted ? A refusal to listen to them, upon the ground that they deal in abstractions not easily to be comprehended by ordinary minds, is neither philosophical nor rational. Their science embraces the most common as well as the most important concerns of social life, and stands in the same relation to nations, as regards the administration of their affairs, as the science of domestic economy does in regard to the well-being of families. How culpable, then, are those who, having capacity and leisure for the study of this important science, not only neglect it, but even sneer at those who, from conviction of its vast utility to their fellow-citizens, are willing to volunteer in an unpopular cause, and to encounter the odium inseparable from the imputation of being hostile to the industry of their own country !

But let unenlightened public opinion think as it may, it cannot deny that the principles of free trade have a highly important advantage over those of the restrictive policy. They are eminently adapted to the promotion of peace amongst nations. Wars, in most cases, originate in commercial jealousy and rivalry ; and what are the principles of free trade, but carrying out to nations that golden precept, enjoined by the Christian religion upon every individual man, "Whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them ?" In contending for these principles, therefore, their advocates are contending for Christianity and good will amongst men, and have the high satisfaction of knowing, that in recommending them to the adoption of their countrymen, they are recommending a duty which it is not only their *obligation*, but their *interest* to discharge.

ART. II.—MORALS OF TRADE.

NUMBER TWO.

WE are aware that the pages of a periodical are not the place for a philosophical treatise, complete in all its parts ; it is not assumed by the writer that he is able to solve questions which have puzzled the wisest heads, or to lay down rules which suppose the widest knowledge : but the object of these papers is to call attention to the subject of trade as a science ; to elevate the mind of those engaged in it by the thought, that it is something more than a petty contrivance to enable poor men to become rich ; something better than an open door for the practice of ingenuity and trickery ; and so far from authorizing any laxity of principle, that it lives and flourishes only by faith, trust, credit, belief in the honesty, fairness, and honor of man. Neither the statute book nor the common law furnishes a foundation for trade ; a security upon which its operations can be carried on. With these alone it would be cramped and narrowed down, until it would lose all its advantages ; and instead of being, as it now is, the

fosterer and mother of civilization, it would sink into a mere cook-shop for supplying the physical wants of men. Trade lives by the law of honor ; and the nearer this law squares with the law of God, the better. We mean to say that it makes requirements of men, which no human penalty can enforce, and appeals to principles whose reward is something higher in value and better in nature than money. If it began and ended in mere convenience ; if it were only a machine for the saving of labor, a kind of patent chemistry for converting stuffs into gold ;—if it were nothing more than these, in vain would it be to talk of its dignity or its morals.

But it so happens, by the order of Providence, that every necessary, human institution, (and in a previous number we have shown trade to be of this kind,) has its means of progress, as an essential part of its constitution. All human contrivances, arts, and habits, when they conform to the laws of nature, are the means of discipline and instruction to the heart and mind. Indeed this is the test by which every thing is to be judged—is it for the general good ? And if we can reply in the affirmative, we may be sure that it is in obedience to the law of nature, and may safely be adopted or practised.

“ But,” says the young merchant, “ I care not for other people ; I have come here to make a fortune ; talk not to me of the progress of society ; what have I to do with civilization ? Do you suppose I am induced to lead this slavish life, buried in a small counting-room, among brick walls, two thirds of every day, amid smells and odors altogether disagreeable and indescribable, suffering in health for the want of pure air—do you think I endure all this for any distant prospect of good to my fellow-creatures ? Believe it not ! I am bent on making a fortune in the shortest possible time, and then I shall retire and enjoy my leisure.” We have introduced this young man as speaking a false view of his duty. He evidently is in the dark. He moves in a small sphere as yet. How it would startle him to know and feel, as he might, that such objects, such selfish, narrow ends, are the parents of injustice, dishonesty, and crime ; that a disregard for the *happiness* of others is of a kindred class of feelings with those which disregard the *rights* of others. What does such a man do but trample in the dust a person who can find no redress in the law of the land, as the thief takes the property of another, for which wrong, however, he suffers if detected ? The only difference is, that one is connected with a human penalty and the other is not. Nor does the moral turpitude of an action, whether it be a disregard of the happiness of others, or an infringement upon their right of property, depend upon the severity of the penalty attached to it. For instance, society punishes intemperance with more severity than it does lying or licentiousness, not because it is a baser thing in itself, for it is not, being an act ruinous to the individual himself alone, but because of its consequences : just as the English law made the stealing of hides, hung out to dry, a more heinous offence than the stealing of other things of equal value, from the necessity of exposing them. The seducer, or he who fails in business to make money, is received back again into society with more ready arms than the drunkard ; and the thief who steals a hide is punished with death, while he who steals a watch is only transported for a number of years, because penalties regard the security and safety of society, and do not pretend to deal with the moral character of actions. We conclude then, that they are self-deceived who rate their virtue according to their exemption from penalties ; and we fearlessly say

that the trader or merchant who does all the good he can to himself, without regard to the interests of others, making a fortune by the practise of every trick and deception not cognizable in a court of law, is little better than the thief who robs a hen-roost and suffers incarceration.

The difference between human law and divine justice is, that the one deals with actions and the other with motives. Acts are all that human law can touch ; it cannot punish the disposition, however base and wicked it may be, unless it show itself in some overt act. Divine justice regards acts as straws, and looks to the motive and disposition as the test of the character of the action, as whether it be good or bad. The first we call the law of the land—the last, the morals of society. Moral rules and precepts and arguments apply to those instances which the law of the land cannot touch from the nature of the case. The young merchant, bent upon a fortune, has made the fatal mistake of considering himself only amenable to the former, and it is against such a view that we would employ the remainder of this paper.

You say, "I came here to make a fortune." Is not your object happiness and respectability ? Are you not involved in the general state of refinement and prosperity of the place in which you live ? Suppose you do amass wealth, and, at the same time, see immorality, knavery, and vice growing at an equal pace about you ; if you have a family whose education you regard, if you think of the security of your property, if happiness means contentment, peace, and security, the enjoyment of ease of mind and body, how have you compassed your end by this selfish course ? Your family is invaded and your sons ensnared by vice ; your house or store is burned by an incendiary, or broken open and ransacked. You live in continual fear of violence ; you have no reliance upon the word of men who were schooled in the same precepts as those by which you gained your present position. Are you happy ? You have no right to be. You labored for money. You have it. You worked not for the public good ; you said nothing about public education ; you gave nothing to establish the institutions of religion and benevolence in the city, and you have no right to ask for effects you did not work for : you did not sow, neither shall you reap. Take your fortune ; enjoy it if you can.

Too late will our ambitious young merchant find out that trade means something more than making money. Would he be a good farmer who should sow and till his land and gather his harvest without having a barn or shed in which to store it away from the weather ? Is he a good merchant who gives his sole attention to the accumulation of fortune without preparing about him, as far as he can, a state of society in which wealth may be enjoyed ? Wealth alone cannot confer happiness. The sacred page teaches this ; experience teaches it ; all ancient and modern philosophy derides the idea of its being the chief good. And yet it is pursued singly, unremittingly, with the loss of health, by separation from home, away from friends, and wife, and children, at any sacrifice,—we blush to say it—sometimes by the sacrifice of truth and honesty, as if it were the whole business of life.

The temptations which beset the merchant are stronger than those which assail almost any other class ; and one of the most prominent of these is personal extravagance. The mechanic makes his five or ten dollars a day, and but little money passes through his hands, besides that which he receives for his actual labor ; while the merchant, even when making noth-

ing a day, is receiving thousands and tens of thousands by agency or otherwise, and is deluded and cheated out of a view of his actual condition, by the bustle and activity about him. The loss of to-day may be necessary to the gain of to-morrow ; upon the whole he may be a gainer ; he is losing thousands every day, but this is to end in some grand scheme which is to cover all his losses and place his name high up on the rolls of 'change. All this time he goes on in his usual style of living. His personal expenses are considered a mere flea-bite, when compared with the immense amounts passing through his hands, and a difference of five or ten thousand dollars in a failure for hundreds of thousands is a very small matter. Thus he reasons. But the loss falls with a heavy hand somewhere ; and perhaps the children of his servants and others in his employment, his butcher, his baker, have to suffer in the diminution of their few and humble pleasures and comforts, for the extravagant expenditure of an establishment, whose best foundation was a reasonable hope of making a fortune. The large speculator must keep up appearances ; he must live in a large house ; give expensive entertainments ; his wife and children must dress in the richest fabrics. And why ? Oh, to show that he is confident of success ; that his projects are good and secure ; for, reason good people, the man would not keep up such state and show, unless he was *pretty sure*. Now the fact is, the man is *not* pretty sure ; but he wishes to make you good people think so.

It does not take a sage to see that this is all wrong ; that one may not justly expend money to keep up appearances, to enlarge his credit and increase confidence. Suppose success does crown four efforts in five of this kind, the one failure spreads dismay, want, and misery that no amount of general happiness can recompense. The rule of law, that it is better ninety-nine guilty persons should escape, rather than one innocent man should suffer, applies here. Better that no great fortune should be made, no grand operations call down the applause of bankers and brokers, than that by a reckless run of chances, one poor, deserving person should be pinched in his little wants.

But the effects of personal extravagance, and the keeping up of appearances, does not end in the amount of money expended. There is another account open, which every man, whether he will or not, is obliged to keep,—that with his own heart and conscience. Who can tell how from small sacrifices of principle ; running risks which may succeed nine times in ten ; borrowing at usurious interest, to pay one man, to buy on time of another ; hedging and doubling, the fair merchant “loses that nice sense of honor which felt a stain as a wound,” and, at last, is ready to plunge headlong into desperate speculation to save him a little longer from his inevitable fate.

The very fact that he is living beyond his means, when known to a man, must rob him of his self-respect and make a beginning in his character of unfairness and insincerity which will probably end in dishonesty and fraud. We say then, that extravagance based upon a probability of realizing money from business, upon any other ground than a certainty, is unjustifiable, however common it may be. There is in reality no weight, no shadow of reason in this keeping up appearances. It is a false doctrine, and only gives a man the chance, if he does fail, of involving more in his ruin. The longer a sinking house lives after it is bankrupt, the more fatal is its last gasp. And this is one of the peculiar

temptations of the merchant, which, if he loves justice, he must withstand. Washington Irving has strongly painted the struggle of a highminded man, in his hour of mercantile adversity, between the world and his duty. It is in the story of "The Wife," a story every merchant may read with advantage. For after the struggle was over and he had retrenched his expenses to his means, the noble Leslie confessed he never felt so happy before.

But another and perhaps more insidious temptation assails the merchant, or rather merchants, as a class; the power of making their own conventional rules, gives them the opportunity of establishing a false code, specious, plausible, and deceptive, by which they shall attain their ends by doing wrong with the appearance of doing right. Let merchants think of the immense power placed in their hands and tremble. They need the wisdom of Solomon, and the justice of Aristides. Every city merchant has under his influence, in all parts of the country, men of every grade in trade, who from a sense of obligation, by credit furnished them, extensions, &c., are ready to listen and subscribe to what he may seem to think is right. The country merchant, who deals out his goods in shilling sales, looks with a kind of respect and deference up to the man who deals in whole cargoes, and whose clerk-hire alone amounts to more money than he turns by his yearly business. He therefore gets his cue when he purchases his goods, and carries home in his mind the tone he has learned in the city. Does he see any unfairness?—is any stratagem confided to him by which money is to be made?—he straightway concocts his own little tricks upon the poor people of his neighborhood. He mixes sand with his sugar; pares off the end of his yardstick; reduces not only his liquors, but his vinegar; and makes up for their want of pungency by poisonous compounds. He not only charges thirteen cents for twelve and a half, and seventeen cents for sixteen and two thirds, but he does what he has no right to do, and what the buyer only submits to because credit is necessary to him—and he is, as it were, in the power of the country trader, by some old debt—he charges thirty-four cents for thirty-three and one third. It is better that the buyer should lose one third of a cent than that the seller should lose two thirds, and so he justly charges on his book seventeen cents for sixteen and two thirds; but why does not the rule operate in favor of the buyer when his purchase amounts to only thirty-three cents and one third? Straws show which way the wind blows; and we may as well see the relation between buyer and seller in this little operation as in a larger matter. There is—who will deny it?—a systematic grinding of the people by the small traders in the country; and we fear it is because there is a systematic grinding of the traders by the city merchants. What can be more unfair, more unmanly, more undignified, to call it by no harsher name, than the system of dressy clerks, boarding at hotels to make the acquaintance of raw countrymen; to carry them to the theatre, wine them, &c., and then take them to their stores and sell them goods at twice their value? When Jonathan gets home, and his addled brain has recovered from the combined commotion of the splendor, politeness, and wine, to make himself whole, he must continue upon his customers, if he can, the imposition that has been practised upon himself. Some poor girl out at service in the country village, at four shillings a week, pays her shilling towards healing this wound the sagacity of Jonathan has received, and perhaps the poor widow contributes her share to the purse also. Custom authorizes such things. Merchants make their own laws. If all do

it, it is right. This is a fair presumption in such an age as this. But so artful and sophistical are the pleadings of self-interest, that the position of the merchant is one of great temptation, and in reality he possesses a power which he may abuse.

On the other hand, he possesses this power for good. What a generous, magnanimous spirit may he infuse into his country correspondence, by the fairness, justice, and generosity of his dealings with them! They need this. The country trader, doing a small business with people who have little ready-money, making his gains by half cents, and feeling willing to make any sacrifice rather than lose his credit in Pearl-street, stretches his conscience to its utmost tension, often, from the perplexity of his situation. He wishes to sell to people who have land and stock, even if they have no money. His safe is already full of their notes; but the cash to meet his payments must be raised, and now comes the struggle, the evasion, the lie, the fraud. Trade is poisoned, corrupted, and has a demoralizing tendency, when things come to this pass. Perhaps the city merchant has been to blame in giving Jonathan too much credit, by which he has got his hands full of the notes of these people. He has become a petty tyrant in his neighborhood. Everybody owes him, and now he can charge them what he pleases, and regulate all the politics and religion of the village into the bargain. The lash a small lawyer holds ready to let fall at his bidding, is the argument he uses to enforce his wishes. This is a dreadful state of things, yet not uncommon. You may ride through a beautiful country of fine farms, with peaceful cottages scattered through it, and you say to yourself, "Here is peace, plenty, and happiness." Alas, yonder husbandman, resting beneath the shade of a tree, is indulging in no pleasant reflection. He is thinking of the debt he owes at that little, black, dingy-looking store which stands somewhere near the tavern and meeting-house, with large square windows and wooden shutters, and a horse-hitch before it. The man who trades there does not find it necessary to modernize and ornament his building in order to draw customers. He has no competitor in business. He is in fear of none.

But the evil day comes at last. It must come. There is a dreadful day at hand, when things are to find their level, and oppression, sacrifice of property, dismay and ruin closes up a scene which is to be enacted at some other time, in the same or some other place.

These then are the great temptations of the city merchant, to make a fortune, by some means, in as short a time as possible, and to underrate and misuse the influence he may have upon the character of the country merchant. We have other views of this matter, which we must defer to another occasion.

FREE TRADE.

Free as the winds, and chainless as the sea,
Should trade and commerce unrestricted be;
Wherever land is found, or oceans roll,
Or man exists, from Indus to the pole,
Open to all, with no false ties to bind,
THE WORLD SHOULD BE THE MARKET OF MANKIND.

ART. III.—NEW SOURCES OF TRADE.

NUMBER ONE.

THE BARBARY STATES.

“ Whilst we follow them among the tumbling mountains of ice, and behold them penetrating into the deepest frozen recesses of Hudson’s Bay and Davis’ Straits, whilst we are looking for them beneath the Arctic Circle, we hear that they have pierced into the opposite region of polar cold, that they are at the antipodes, and engaged under the frozen serpent of the south. Falkland Island, which seemed too remote and romantic an object for the grasp of national ambition, is but a stage and resting-place in the progress of their victorious industry. Nor is the equinoctial heat more discouraging to them than the accumulated winter of both the poles. We know that whilst some of them draw the line and strike the harpoon on the coast of Africa, others run the longitude and pursue their gigantic game along the coast of Brazil. No sea but what is vexed by their fisheries, no climate that is not witness to their *toils*. Neither the perseverance of Holland, nor the activity of France, nor the dexterous and firm sagacity of English enterprise, ever carried this most perilous mode of hard industry to the extent to which it has been pushed by this recent people; a people who are still, as it were, but in the gristle, and not yet hardened into the bone of manhood.”—*Mr. Burke’s speech on conciliation with the Colonies, March 22, 1775.*

NEARLY seventy years have elapsed since Edmund Burke gave utterance to the above sentiments on the floor of the British House of Commons. Although at the time they more directly applied to the whale fisheries of New England, they as properly belonged to every branch of foreign commerce which the jealousy of the mother country allowed the colonies to follow. If Edmund Burke could, from the slumbers of the tomb, behold the mighty progress of that people “then in the gristle,” after sixty years of self-government, he could truly repeat his own beautiful apostrophe to Lord Bathurst—“Whatever England has been growing to by a progressive increase of improvement, brought in by varieties of people, by succession of civilizing conquests, and civilizing settlements in a series of seventeen hundred years, you shall see as much added to her by America in the course of a single life!” How truly prophetic! Let the increase of population from two and a half to seventeen millions answer. Let the thousand remote fields covered with harvests, where then roamed the beast, and the savage almost as wild as the game he pursued, answer. Let the steamboat that penetrates the Missouri and the Mississippi three thousand miles from the Gulf of Mexico answer. Let the two millions of tonnage that float wherever wind or steam can carry them, at the poles or the equator, answer. Her commerce, her manufactures, her agriculture, all speak of her present, and point to the future greatness that rests upon her name. If her people are but true to themselves, no nation that ever flourished, Carthage, Greece, Rome, not even England herself, will compare with what is to come. The territories of our country are so vast, capable of sustaining a population of five hundred millions, our soil so rich, climate so various, and productions so numerous, that it scarcely seems within the bounds of credibility to suppose aught can frustrate her advancement.

We are emphatically a COMMERCIAL nation: the first impulse given to our prosperity was from trade with foreign countries; the simple productions of our forests alone, consisting of timber, staves, peltries, and ashes, needed an outlet, and at the close of the revolution were, with the ex-

ception of tobacco, about the only articles that we had to purchase necessary articles from abroad ; as this commerce increased, agriculture received a new impetus, and thus our exports continued to increase as we demanded larger imports. Manufactures followed next, and the three now flourish greenly together—the great pillars of our national prosperity.

As our manufactures and agriculture increase they demand greater outlets, and then it is that commerce steps in and becomes the agent of both. Within a few years the attention of our merchants has been directed to new channels of trade with other countries, and the government has shown a laudable interest in aiding them in their undertakings : witness the Muscat treaty, which may be of greater importance than seems probable just at present, to future mercantile operations.

The object of this article is to call the attention of the mercantile marine owners to a source of trade which has been long neglected, or in fact was never engaged in. I mean the Barbary powers. Up to 1815 the inhabitants of Morocco, Tunis, Tripoli, and Algiers, were considered little better than roving sea-pirates and robbers, and in fact were so. But about that period the frequent chastisements which they received from several of the European powers, and in a couple of instances from our own government, led them to become more orderly, and we hear no more of Barbary cruisers. Algiers it is true is now occupied by the French, but to them it is valueless for any practical purpose, as their power is only of avail within the walls. The city is in fact a mere dead-weight upon the revenue of France, and in case of any disturbance in Europe would probably at once be abandoned. The trade which was formerly carried on from Algiers to the interior, has only changed its channel, and the other Barbary powers receive its benefits.

I shall endeavor to show that a successful trade, commencing small at first, can be carried on between this country and Morocco, Tunis, and Tripoli, advantageous to all, which is now principally enjoyed by the different nations on the opposite side of the Mediterranean. Look for an instant at the immense extent of what is called Barbary. It takes in the northernmost division of Northern Africa, and is but a few hundred short of three thousand miles in extent from east to west. Its northern shore is washed by the Mediterranean, and the southern boundary touches the desert of Sahara, on the west beats the Atlantic ocean, and its eastern border reaches Egypt. Its width varies from five hundred and fifty to one hundred and fifty miles. It will therefore be seen that it takes in a large extent of country, and a country too, rich in productions, and which under an industrious population would take rank among the proudest of the earth.

Barbary was one of the first known African regions. A thousand years before Christ, the Phœnicians were acquainted with it, and it was here that, under Dido, was founded Carthage the great. It is probable the Carthaginians held possession of the whole country from the Atlantic to Egypt, until their overthrow by the Romans. The latter people having finally obtained possession of the whole of Barbary, held undisputed sway until A. D. 428, when they were ejected by the Vandals, who carried devastation and death wherever they went. About a century after, Belisarius, the famous general of the Roman empire at Byzantium, or as it is now called Constantinople, again re-conquered the country ; but finally, more than a century and a half subsequent, the Mohammedan Arabs or Saracens overturned the Roman rule in Africa, and in conjunction with

the Turks founded what are now called the Barbary powers. These powers, up to this century, have been dreaded by all Christendom. Sal-lee rovers, Tunisian corsairs, and Algerine pirates, were as much dreaded by merchant vessels in the Mediterranean as the Cuba pirates of our own day. There was a time when these cruisers sailed up the Bristol channel to capture traders coming from Ireland to the fair at Bristol! The nations of Europe were in the habit of paying them an annual tribute to escape their enmity, and it remained for DECATUR, at the mouth of his cannon before Algiers, to abolish, as far as concerned the United States, that infamous tribute forever. Other nations then refused, and now we believe there is not a single one that pays tribute to a Barbary power. So much for the navy of our country, a navy brought into existence by our commerce!

The inhabitants of Barbary can be enumerated under three heads, *Moors*, *Arabs*, and *Berbers*; in manners, customs, and religion, they are similar. The Moors form the greater proportion of city population, and also in agriculture. They are whiter skinned, fuller faced, and have more of the European features than the Arabs. They are divided into tribes, bearing some resemblance to the clans of Scotland, and the same bitter feeling exists among the tribes, which tends to keep down that civilization that might arise were they united. Still the Moors, both for commerce and civility, form undoubtedly the best portion of the inhabitants of Barbary.

The Arabs are descendants of the original Saracens, amalgamated with the wilder population of the Sahara desert; they are cut up like the Moors into tribes, though on a more petty scale: these tribes never intermingle, but war against each other at times with savage ferocity. They are warlike and active, and but little given to commerce. If they were united they might have ruling sway over the whole of Barbary. They adhere to the religion of Mohammed, with faith and pertinacity. They constitute the herdsmen of Barbary, and raise a small portion of barley and wheat.

The mountainous regions bordering on the desert, are inhabited by a race distinct, as it would seem, from either Moors or Arabs: as they speak a different language, they are called Berbers. They are a warlike race, and, like our own Indians, fond of wild freedom. Like the Moors and Arabs, they are Mohammedans; but it is because the government is so, it being rather a matter of convenience with the Berbers than faith. Nominally they acknowledge submission to the several states of Barbary, but it is merely nominally; when offended they fly to the mountains, where it is dangerous to approach them. They are more consumers than producers.

Having given a general outline of what constitutes the Barbary powers, it may be as well to state here their general exports, productions, and importations, before taking up each state, regency, or empire separately.

Exportations and productions.—Wool of coarse and fine quality, sen-na and other drugs, madder roots, barilla, dates, hides, goat and sheep skins dressed, salt, natron, ostrich feathers, ivory, gums, saffron, dried fruit, olive oil of fine quality, soap, sponges, honey, wax, oil of roses, almonds, gold dust, morocco leather, cattle, &c. &c.

All of the Barbary states produce excellent wheat, barley, and Indian corn, and could, if the people were industrious, supply all Europe with bread-stuffs cheaper, in case of short crops, than any other portion of the

world; but such is their indolence, that occasional famines arise when there should be plenty, and grain is not allowed to be exported in consequence.

Importations and consumption.—Cloths of all colors, Manchester cotton stuffs, (in fact cotton cloths of all kinds,) tea, coffee, sugar, spices, spirits, wines, gold and silver tissues, laces and threads, cochineal, indigo, dye-woods, unwrought iron, hardware of all kinds, muskets, pistols, sword blades, naval stores of every description, powder, shot, looking-glasses, alum, &c.

Is not here an opportunity for American enterprise? With the exception of an occasional vessel between New York and Mogadore, (and the late Captain James Riley commenced the trade,) we have no commerce with the Barbary States.

In regard to the trade with Tunis and Tripoli—Marseilles and Leghorn, from the nearness of their location across the Mediterranean, have had most of the commercial advantages accruing; indeed trade with Barbary from the United States appears not to have been thought of. Mr. Noah, our consul at Tunis in 1814 and '15, in his very interesting volume of *Travels in the Barbary States*, recommends the attention of our merchants to this trade. He says, "The states of Barbary have from time immemorial been supplied by France in the articles which they required. The vicinity of France rendered the intercourse more easy, and enabled the French both to study the taste, and, with that versatility of character for which they are so remarkable, to accommodate themselves to the manners and customs of the Moors." He also observes, (writing of Tunis,) "We have a favorable commercial treaty with this kingdom, and the duties are very trifling. Such are the advantages of the export trade, that even admitting we have no consumption for all the articles, yet it is in our power to obtain the carrying trade by means of our light and fast-sailing brigs and schooners, and can absorb a great portion of this trade now carried on by French, Genoese, Spanish, and Sicilian flags." All this is worthy of attention, and doubtless an intercourse could be carried on with these states beneficial to our merchants, to the revenue of the government, and the introduction of our manufactures even to the interior of Africa. I shall now take up separately Tripoli, Tunis, and Morocco, giving an account of the commercial advantages of each, as far as I am able to compile them from the best authorities.

TRIPOLI.

This state, the most easterly of all the Barbary States, extends along the Mediterranean about 800 miles. It was under the dominion of the Porte till 1713, when Hamet Pasha erected it to an independent state. Since that time Tripoli has been held by the despotic power of its own deys. Capt. Beechey says that property is respected and secure, commerce flourishes and is improving, and manufactures are encouraged. This was in 1822—and since that period the government has not altered.

Tripoli of itself produces large quantities of grain, but it is not allowed to be exported; so with horses and mules, but bullocks and sheep are carried across the Mediterranean in large numbers. Dates are produced, and cotton to a limited extent. But it is upon the caravans that twice a year arrive from the interior of Africa, extending even to Timbuctoo, that the trade of Tripoli depends.

They bring from Central Africa gold dust, trona, senna, ostrich fea-

thers, red alum, and ivory, besides numerous smaller articles, in considerable quantities on the backs of their camels. These are exchanged mostly for European productions, (why not for ours?) viz: paper, real and false corals, imitation pearls, *printed cottons cheap*, silk stuffs, small mirrors, *pistols, fire-arms*, needles, razors, turbans, amber, porcelain vases, coffee cups, copper vessels, caftans, cotton, embroidered muslins, *white cotton handkerchiefs, striped cotton shirts, white calico shirts, fine white calicoes*, which are highly prized at Bornoo, essence of roses, and spices. Here certainly is an opening worth looking after. We have a consul at Tripoli, who is in fact a *chargé d'affaires*. He receives a salary, and is not allowed to engage in merchandise. We have the same officer at all the Barbary courts. Accounts in Tripoli are kept in piastres; their value is 3s. 3d. sterling, according to Kelly. The weights are styled cantaros: the cantaro is about 112lbs. avoirdupois. The exports from Tripoli consist of wool, barilla, hides, dressed goat and sheep skins, senna, and other drugs, madder roots, salt, ostrich feathers, gold dust, ivory, dried fruit, saffron, bullocks, sheep, and poultry. There are none of our cottons that could not be sold in Tripoli, and all sorts of naval stores and fire-arms. The harbor is good, and will admit all vessels not drawing over eighteen feet of water. The city contains about 25,000 inhabitants; the whole state probably 2,000,000.

TUNIS.*

The kingdom of Tunis extends along the Mediterranean about 500 miles, and into the interior 250 miles. Within a few miles of the city of Tunis is the site of ancient Carthage. A few cisterns, an amphitheatre in ruins, and a broken aqueduct, tell us, here "Carthage was!" Tunis is under the government of a bey, and as despotic as violent elected rulers generally are.

Its exports are olive oil—which Mr. Noah describes as equal to the best Florence, if properly selected; wool, nearly equal to the best Spanish—20,000 *cantaros* have been exported in one year; soap of a very superior quality, sponges, gold dust, ivory, ostrich feathers, hides, wax, and oil of roses. The caravans from Timbuctoo formerly arrived at Tunis in the month of June, but some impolitic movements of the bey latterly have interrupted them. The importations into Tunis, according to Mr. Noah, are French cloths, British muslins, linens, serges, coffee, sugar, spices, iron, silk, cochineal, indigo, and dye-woods. Our cotton goods would be a valuable shipment, if properly selected. The city of Tunis is supposed to contain about 130,000 inhabitants; the whole kingdom between 2 and 3,000,000. The outer harbor is good.

ALGIERS.

As Algiers is now in possession of the French, and under the laws of France, it has virtually ceased to be a Barbary power, and no description of its commerce is necessary; in fact, there is none. The interior tribes are at war with the French, and all trade is cut off.

MOROCCO.

Morocco is the largest of all the Barbary States, extending from Algiers in the Mediterranean to Cape Nun in the Atlantic ocean. It contains

* For an interesting description of Tunis, and in fact the Barbary States generally, see Noah's travels.

several large cities or towns—Morocco, Mogadore, Tangier, Tetuan, Sal-lee, and Mequinez. Mogadore, however, in the only seaport of any consequence in a mercantile point of view.

The empire is ruled by a sultan, whose family have possessed the throne for about three hundred years.

There is an extensive trade carried on from Morocco to the interior tribes of Africa, and, as with all the Barbary States, it might be increased ten-fold if commerce would set the wheel in motion. The British, as I have before stated, possess most of the import trade, the duties exacted from them being by treaty only half of what other nations pay.

Imports.—Woollen, linen, and cotton cloths and stuffs, wrought and unwrought iron, fire-arms, gunpowder and shot, sugar, spices, hardware, raw silks, glass beads, toys, and a variety of minor articles.

Exports.—Wool, morocco leather, goat-skins, beeswax, olive oil, hides, almonds, ostrich feathers, dates, and sometimes grain.

Mogadore, the principal seaport, contains from ten to twenty thousand inhabitants. The harbor is formed by an island to the south of the city, but at ebb-tide the water is only about ten or twelve feet in depth. Vessels of great draft of water must anchor a mile and a half west of the long battery. The trade with Mogadore is now chiefly carried on from London, Amsterdam, Leghorn, Lisbon, Cadiz, and Teneriffe. A considerable trade is also carried on at Tetuan, just at the opening of the Straits of Gibraltar. The whole population of Morocco probably exceeds 5,000,000.

Since the preparation of this article by our correspondent, we* have fallen in with the following interesting particulars of the foreign commerce of the empire of Morocco, for a series of years, and more particularly for the last three years. The facts are mainly derived from the London Journal of Commerce, a paper as remarkable for the amount as for the general accuracy of its commercial information:

The foreign commerce of the empire of Morocco is thus classed for the years indicated:—

1834	Importations about	£367,000
1835	do.	394,360
1836	do.	528,900
1837	do.	436,760
1838	do.	393,240
1839	do.	580,880
1834	Exportations about	355,680
1835	do.	326,840
1836	do.	513,160
1837	do.	344,400
1838	do.	400,360
1839	do.	480,360

These figures must not, however, be taken as representing the whole of the foreign trade carried on by Morocco, and the same reservation must be understood as applicable also to the similar details lately furnished under this head of the trade of Tunis. For an extensive contraband trade is actively carried on along the coast of the Barbaresque states, and particularly on those of Morocco. Therefore the imports as stated above

* Editor of the Merchants' Magazine.

must be regarded as much below the real quantities introduced. According to the most accredited calculations the amount of the contraband trade would swell the yearly values of those returns, as above derived from the customs books of the country, by *one fourth*, say therefore for—

1839 standing at	£580,830
Add one fourth illicit trade	145,220
Total	£726,100

So far as the import of British produce and manufactures, whether in the course of regular or clandestine traffic, enters into these returns, and the general consumption of the country, it may be observed that but a portion of it is effected direct from this country. The trade appears to be mostly carried on through the indirect channels of Gibraltar and Malta, although the direct portion of it is decisively on the increase. For according to the official returns of the declared value of the manufactures and produce of the United Kingdom exported, the whole value of exports to Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco, which are classed under one head, is stated only in—

1834 for	£14,823
1835	29,040
1836	29,322
1837	54,007
1838	74,013

The trade returns for 1839 have not yet found their way to the public. There is no sufficient reason why these tables should not be forthcoming within three months after the termination of each year at the outside. Of what possible advantage to a commercial man, to whom speedy information is above all things necessary for the purpose of founding or checking his business calculations for the year in-coming by the general results of the one concluded, can it be to have the returns for the year 1839 presented to him only at the close of 1841, or those for 1840 not before the advent of 1842 ?

The movement of navigation in the ports of Morocco for the 1839, according to the customhouse books of that country, is thus exemplified :—

INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
Great Britain	253	13,664	306	15,945
France	27	3,227	32	4,070
Portugal	15	1,309	28	2,322
Spain	72	974	79	1,020
United States	3	600	5	827
Other countries	2	229	6	560
Totals	372	20,003	456	24,744

The totals of entries inwards and outwards for—

INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1837 were	294	16,485	314	19,154
1838	302	20,143	346	22,201

The total foreign commerce of Morocco, according to the customs returns of legitimate trade, amounted as before stated for the year—

1839—Imports to	£580,880
Exports	480,360
Total	£1,061,240

Upwards of three fourths of which corresponds to the direct trade with Great Britain, as thus:—

Imports from England	£460,960
Exports to	356,560
Total	£817,520

The only other amounts of any consideration in the commerce of Morocco with foreign nations are—

	<i>Imports from</i>	<i>Exports to</i>
France	£82,840	£79,560
United States	20,680	11,560

The amounts for Portugal, Spain, Sardinia, Belgium, Holland, &c., are too trivial for notice.

The principal articles of this general commerce may be thus enumerated:—

IMPORTS INTO MOROCCO.

Tissues of cotton, cotton yarn inclusive	£191,200
woollens	64,240
silks	11,720
linens and hemp	5,120
Raw silk	48,240
Raw and refined sugar	28,000
Steel, iron, lead, tin, and copper	21,360
Spices, drugs, and dye-stuffs	19,400
Cutlery	16,400
Tea	8,800
Earthenware, porcelain, and glass-ware	4,520
Cotton wool	3,780
Specie and bullion	135,400

EXPORTS FROM MOROCCO.

Fruits, fresh and dry	£90,840
Wool and woollens	84,720
Olive oil	43,240
Wax, raw and labored	39,000
Hides, raw and dressed	35,880
Grain	32,880
Living animals, oxen	22,200
Gum	19,360
Bark for tanning, ground and unground	7,600
Leeches	5,400
Specie and bullion	94,400

As compared with previous years, it will be seen there is an increase in the general commerce of Morocco for 1839, as well as in that special por-

tion carried on with this country, independent of the contraband trade, which results to the more immediate profit of Gibraltar. The general increase over 1838 amounts on the shipping to 2,403 tonnage; and on the value of commodities transported to 267,640*l.* or about 25 per cent. The increase, so far as those goods which it may be assumed are chiefly supplied from or by England, in any bulk, bears for the most part on the following articles:—

	1838.	1839.
Cotton tissues and yarn . . .	£129,980	£191,200
Woollen cloths and tissues . . .	15,000	64,240

In consequence, as the advices from thence state, of the excessive and hairbrained competition of “foreign houses with each other, and particularly the Jew houses,” by their ridiculous over-biddings against one another for the “permits” to export Maroquin produce, and particularly wool, the government, persuaded from these extravagant subsidies to its treasury that enormous profits were realized by the trade in wool, raised the duties on export one third. An order of the emperor was subsequently notified to the foreign merchants of Mogadore, on the 10th of July, 1839, prohibiting the export of washed wools, but allowing those deposited in the customhouse at the date to be shipped on payment of a duty of nine dollars per quintal; the quintal at that place being equal to about 175 lb., and the dollar being the Spanish dollar. For unwashed wool in fleece, and for that called *halouia*, being a kind of residue or waste of the tanning of hides or of the manufacture of the coarse stuffs of the country, which, washed in the state of small flocks in the *douars* or hamlets of the interior, is bought up and brought to the coast by carriers, the duty remained, as before, at four dollars and four dollars 6½ oz. (13½ ounces being equal to the dollar) according to the port of exportation. In September, 1839, the duties on the export of wheat and flour were also raised:

Wheat from 1 dollar per fanega to 1½ dollars.

Flour from 1½ dollars per quintal to 2½ dollars.

The fanega being equivalent to about 50lbs.; the quintal to 150lbs. This advance in the duties was owing to the large orders of purchase which had been then received from Gibraltar, and the fact may serve to show the sort of mercy to be expected in foreign countries if, by the repeal of corn laws, we are left dependent on them for the supply of food. In Morocco, prompt payment of the export duties, excepting those on wax, entitles to a reduction of 25 per cent in the ports of Tangier, Tetuan, Laracha and Rabat; but of 12½ per cent only in those of Mogadore, Saffi, Mazagan, and Casabianca. This prompt payment constitutes, however, a privilege only to be enjoyed by special authorization of the emperor. The general rule is that each party has an open credit, and the duties are receivable at fixed dates, or upon demand of the local authority.

This British commerce with Morocco is therefore, as from the premises will be gathered, of much greater extent and importance than could be imagined from the meager outline to be gathered from the official returns laid before Parliament and published by Mr. Porter; it therefore should be fostered and cultivated as greatly as possible by government influence, and all the trammels to which now subject in Morocco should be the object by friendly negotiation to get removed. The imports and exports together, with the contraband traffic inclusive, of this commerce represent

an annual movement of 1,000,000*l.* value at least on British account and in British bottoms."

We have endeavored to give a general outline of the extent, commerce, and trade of the Barbary States: at present we have no business with them at all, and if other nations can succeed, why may not American skill, and American enterprise?

ART. IV.—THE COMMERCIAL GUILDS OF RUSSIA.*

1. The Trading communities of Russia—2. The Merchants' Guilds and Licenses—3. A License of the First Guild and its Privileges—4. Immunities attached to a License of the First Guild—5. Exemption from Personal Taxes and Pains—6. The Mercantile Hereditary Citizenship of Honor—7. Dignity of a Merchant of the First Guild—8. A License of the Second Guild, its Privileges and Immunities—9. A License of the Third Guild and its Privileges—10. Changing and Leaving Guild—11. The Classification of Trading Peasants—12. Peasants not allowed to sign Bills—13. Licenses required by Merchants' Clerks—14. Merchants' Sons not Licensed—15. Passes required by Merchants Travelling in Russia—16. Legality of Signatures to Contracts, Bills, and Obligations—17. Brokers and Notaries for Granting Certificates—18. The Commercial Courts—19. The Code of Laws—20. The Free Traders of the Country—21. The Inland Trade, chiefly carried on by Russians—22. Nature of the Trade of Dealers in Produce—23. The Principles adhered to by such Dealers—24. The Trustworthiness of Inland Merchants—25. The highest Class of such—26. The Foreign Trade, by whom carried on.

1. THE trading community of Russian subjects comprises two distinct bodies, namely: the body of merchants, who at the same time are burghers of corporated towns; and the body of trading peasants. Foreigners, residing in Russia for the purposes of trade, form a separate class of merchants, as will be seen in a preceding number of the Merchants' Magazine.

2. The body of merchants is divided into three Guilds, or classes, of different degree; to one of which every merchant must belong according to the nature and extent of his trade, by holding an adequate annual license, which is issued by the Town house of the corporation to which he belongs as a burgher, paying a certain annual rate to government.

3. A burgher wishing to be written up in the highest or first guild, voluntarily declares himself at the Town house to be possessed of a capital of about £2,500, on which sum he has, while continuing in the same line of business, to pay the annual guild rate of 4 per cent, besides $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent towards defraying the expense of improving the land and water communications of the empire, making together about £110 per annum, levied by the department of finances, through the revenue offices; and he thus obtains a license of the first class, entitling him to the privilege of carrying on inland and foreign trade to any extent, in any part or parts of the empire; of owning every description of ships or vessels, shops and warehouses, manufacturing establishments and fabrics; of transacting bill, banking, and discount business; of establishing insurance offices, and entering into contracts with government to any extent.

* Russian Trader's Assistant.

4. The immunities, attached to a license of the first class, are manifold:—If an individual, possessed thereof, carry on an extensive foreign and inland trade, he is then, for distinction's sake, styled a pre-eminent merchant or negotiator (in the Russian language the French word “*négo-ciante*” is adopted for denoting this dignity;) or if he be chiefly transacting foreign bill business, he is denominated a banker. In a certain department of government a register called “*The Velvet Book*” is kept, for inscribing therein the names of the first class merchants, whose families continue to belong thereto from the grandfather.

5. Merchants have no personal or poll tax to pay, and those of the first and second guilds are besides exempt from military conscription and from pain of corporal punishment, when tried for crimes; in which case they can only be sentenced to imprisonment or transportation, with privation of honorable calling.

6. These personal immunities not being hereditary, unless the heirs continue in the same guild, an hereditary citizenship of honor has in latter times been created, to which all merchants of the first guild are entitled after having been licensed for ten years, (or for twenty years if he be of the second guild,) at the expiration of which time they may claim a diploma of such citizenship from the senate; this, however, does not involve exemption from payment of the guild rates, which must be annually paid by every merchant while in business, whether he be a simple burgher, or a citizen of honor, or a nobleman.

7. A merchant of the first guild is personally admissible to his majesty's court on grand court days, on which occasion he is allowed to carry a sword and dress in the uniform of the government, to which his corporation belongs. If he prefer to appear in national dress, he must carry a sabre instead of the sword. A merchant having belonged to the first guild for twelve years, and been instrumental in improving and extending the trade of the country; may, by the minister of finances, be recommended to the title of councillor of commerce; and as such he may be elected member of official committees under government for giving advice on commercial questions. Of equal signification is the title of manufacturing councillor, granted to owners of extensive manufactories. Meritorious merchants of the first guild may, for important services to their country, be rewarded with his majesty's special letters of favor, titles, and orders of knighthood, conferring personal nobility; and the sons of such as have been twelve years in the first guild, enjoy the same privileges, if desirous of entering into the civil service of government, as the sons of high military officers. In all these respects it makes no difference to what Christian sect a merchant belong.

8. A burgher, intending to get inscribed into the second guild, declares himself to be possessed of a capital of about £1,000, which is subject to the same annual rate of 4½ per cent; in consideration whereof he obtains a license of the second class, entitling him to the privilege of transacting the same kind of business as the merchant of the first guild, with the following restrictions:—1st. His importation in one ship, or in one transport of goods, must not in value exceed the sum of £2,500 (say 15,000 S. Ro.) nor must the aggregate amount of his exports and imports in a twelve-month, per entry at the customhouse) be above £15,000 (90,000 S. Ro.) exclusive of gold or silver in bars or coin. 2d. He is not allowed to set up an insurance office, nor to style himself a banker. 3d. His contracts

in trade or with government are not to exceed an amount of £2,500 in a single transaction, nor is the aggregate to be more than £15,000 in a twelvemonth. 4th. He may keep shops in the town and in the district of the town of which he is a burgher. When the amount of a solitary transaction, or their aggregate in a twelvemonth, are found to exceed the above-mentioned sums, he is considered to be doing the business of a merchant of the first guild, and required to pay up the rates of the same. In other respects there is but little difference made between merchants of the first and second guild, the latter degree being chiefly intended to afford a saving in the annual rates to merchants of moderate capital, trading to foreign parts, till their business and means increase so much, as to bear easily the expense incurred by belonging to the first guild.

9. The third guild comprises all burghers that are local traders and shopkeepers on a limited scale. Such a one declares himself to be possessed of a capital of about £400, subject to an annual rate of $2\frac{1}{4}$ per cent, and obtains a license entitling him to have one to three shops in the town, or within the district of the town, to which he belongs. He may own ships for carrying other merchants' goods on freight; and have manufactories of his own; confining the sale of his manufactures to the district of his corporation, within which he may also trade in Russian produce, or goods imported by and bought from the merchants of the first and second guild. He may buy and transport victuals to the capitals of Moscow and St. Petersburg for sale. But in all these cases his contracts with private people and government must not exceed the amount of £1,000 (6,000 S. Ro.) at a time. He may make purchases in any part of the empire for transportation to, and sale in his own district. If he wish to carry on a local trade of the above description in more than one district of corporation, he has to pay the rates of the third guild in each. Merchants of this guild are not allowed to transact business with foreign countries, nor with foreign subjects trading in Russia. They are exempt from the poll-tax, while paying guild rates, but subject to the recruiting law and pain of corporal punishment for crimes.

10. Merchants may pass from one guild into another, according as the extent and nature of their trade requires it; and they may cease belonging to any, when giving over trade; in which case they again become simple burghers, paying the poll-tax; unless possessed of a diploma of hereditary citizenship of honor. Merchants, convicted of fraudulent bankruptcy, are forever excluded from the guilds.

11. The body of trading peasants (which means people who are not inscribed in towns and corporations as burghers) is divided into four classes of different degree, similar to the merchants' guilds; for regulating their trade by annual licenses and a payment of rates, in order to prevent their interfering with the privileges of merchants, without incurring the expenses of the latter, or being registered. A peasant's license of the first class incurs an annual tax of about £110, and entitles him to the trade of a merchant of the first guild, banking and insurance business excepted. The tax for the second class is £66, and confers the privileges of a merchant of the second guild. The third class pays £11 per annum, and assimilates to the merchant of the third guild; while peasants of the fourth class, paying only £3 per annum, are allowed to transact the business to which corporated burghers are entitled, without belonging to any guild; namely, a local petty traffic in merchandise and victuals. Peasants, understood to

be farmers and country laborers, are deemed to be trading when making speculative purchases, with a view to resale. In some towns and districts merchants and peasants have to pay only about $\frac{1}{3}$ of the specified annual rates, and in a few even exemption for many years, in order to encourage their settling at such places. In towns there are house taxes to pay.

12. Trading peasants of any class, are not to issue sole stamped bills of exchange, and when such are drawn to their order, they cannot indorse them otherwise than without recourse on themselves. Peasants of the third and fourth classes are not allowed to transact business with foreign subjects trading in Russia.

13. Merchants' clerks or servants in trade also require being registered at the town houses by licenses, stating the business in which they are engaged, the services they are to perform, and the names of their employers. There are two classes: the first comprises head clerks, paying a tax of £2 10s. per annum; the second is for assistant clerks, paying a tax of £2 10s. per annum. Head clerks are such, as are by their master provided with full powers for transacting business in their names, and signing their firms per procuracy.

14. Merchants' sons have no occasion for clerks' licenses, but cannot sign for their parents, or transact business in their names, without being provided with regular full powers from the latter, duly attested by a notary; unless they be trading for themselves, and written up in a guild, which can only be done with the consent of their parents.

15. Nobody in Russia, except noblemen and citizens of honor, can travel beyond the district in which he is domiciled, without a pass from the burgomaster of the corporation, or from the authority by which he is registered a resident. Such passes require being stamped, and are generally granted for a year. The stamp duty for a merchant's pass of the first guild is £4 15s., of the second guild £2 12s., of the third guild £1 5s., and for simple burghers 5s. for one year.

16. The signature of a merchant, burgher, or peasant to contracts, bills, obligations, and other acts, that he may legally enter into, must set forth to what guild and corporation or circuit he belongs; consequently, who and what he is, and where to be found. These regulations operate as efficacious checks on swindling, and the evasion of responsibility; so as to contribute a great deal to the safety of trust on credit.

17. In most commercial towns there are sworn brokers, for mediating and closing bargains; and public notaries for registering and attesting acts; and where there are none, members of the magistracies or local authorities supply their place, as the laws may require.

18. In the principal commercial towns there are commercial courts, composed of a certain number of respectable merchants; the presidents and secretaries being men of the law; and where there are none, the magistracies, composed of burghers and men of the law, supply them.

19. The laws of the country have, during the reign of the present emperor, been revised and systematically arranged into a code; and are continually revised, improved, and augmented by new laws and supplementary regulations as occasion appears.

20. The free trade of the country, not requiring a special qualification by registration in mercantile guilds or classes, comprises:—1. The sale of produce of the soil and of live-stock in market places, villages, and towns.—2. The craft of building ships and vessels for the navigation of the seas,

lakes, and rivers, and the transportation of goods in them.—3. The trade at the fairs and at appointed public auctions.—4. The fabrication of machines and apparatus for manufactories.—5. The keeping of apothecary shops and printing houses.—6. The preparation and sale of chemical compositions.—7. The trade of the noblemen, if confined to the sale of the produce of their estates, and of the breweries, distilleries, fabrics and manufactories, belonging to them.—8. In the towns and villages there is also a free petty shop-trade in victuals and domestic manufactures, including the handicrafts of tailors, shoemakers, &c.

21. The inland wholesale and retail trade of Russia proper, is chiefly carried on by the natives, who are either pedlers, shopkeepers, manufacturers, or travelling dealers; the latter forming the class that buys up produce in different parts of the country, preparing and transporting it for sale to the seaports and frontier towns, and to the numerous fairs; where, in return, they buy up supplies of foreign imported manufactures, colonial and other commodities, chiefly on credit. The native shopkeepers, retailers, and pedlers, generally deal in a variety of articles each; but the travelling dealers prefer to confine themselves, each of them, to one or two kinds of produce, abounding in that part of the country to which they belong as burghers, and to a few articles of import, in constant demand by wholesale: including refined sugar, obtained from the refineries at the seaports.

22. In the trade with the Baltic ports, for example, the dealers lay in and prepare their stocks of produce in the interior between October and March, transport the same to the ports during the spring and summer months, chiefly by water, in barks, for delivery to their contract buyers; or if not previously sold, for chance sale, for exportation. In this course of business, credit found with the farmers, and some speculative buyers of produce in the interior, who do not leave their homes, comes in to their aid for increasing their quantities; and they generally succeed in realizing the whole by the month of October, to a good profit.

23. Sometimes when the demand on the part from exporters fails them to the full extent of their stocks, they must either lower their prices, for affording more inducement to buyers, or hold over to the next year, or consign to foreign countries on their own account. They generally have recourse to the first two of these alternatives; being from habit, and frequent experience of ultimate success, obstinate holders, with much combination and common spirit amongst them; and nothing but absolute necessity can induce them to consign sometimes to foreign countries, which are almost unknown to them, and where they have no connections of their own; nor can judge, in whom they may or may not trust; or how to manage the shipment, drafts, correspondence, &c. They, therefore, in such case, prefer to put their goods into the hands of their wonted buyers for shipment and sale through their own friends abroad, endeavoring to get nearly the whole of the nett proceeds paid out in advance at shipment.

24. The inland dealers, shopkeepers, and manufacturers, being regular burghers in different parts of the country, carrying on the same branch of trade from father to son; and the character and standing of the most of them well known at the seaports, at which they deal; the risk of bad debts in trusting them is very trifling, in proportion to the extent of credit annually granted, particularly with the dealers in Russian produce, most of whom are wealthy people, and many amongst them worth between

£50,000 and £200,000 sterling. The buyers of imports are a more promiscuous set of characters, with whom greater caution is required.

25. The highest class of pre-eminent native Russian merchants is composed of those who carry on the trade with Asia and Russian America, together with the proprietors of extensive manufacturing establishments, in all parts of the empire, the most of whom are gentlemanly people, of good education, honorary citizens, knights of imperial orders, and noblemen.

26. The trade with foreign parts is chiefly carried on by a large and wealthy body of merchants, of foreign extraction, partly foreign subjects, settled at the seaport and frontier towns, and also at Moscow, whose connections abroad enable them, not only to pay down cash to the inland dealer for the produce they buy of him, but also to make advances thereon without interest, at fixed contract prices, six to eight, and more, months before delivery, besides granting long credits to the same parties, and other inland buyers, in selling to them goods imported or received in consignment from their friends abroad. Those of them who are Russian subjects are considered natives, and enjoy the whole of the privileges and immunities attached to the guilds to which they belong. The position of such as do not recognise allegiance to Russia is subject to some unavoidable restrictions in regard to the immunities.

ART. V.—ABUSES OF CLASSIFICATION.

THE MERCANTILE CLASS.

THE classifications of society may be compared to the component parts of the propelling machinery in a steam-vessel. Upon the mutual relation of each and all of the separate parts depends the safety, well-being, and progress of the whole apparatus; and, although the full extent of this dependence may not appear on the first examination, the fact would very soon manifest itself on attempting to make only a partial use of portions of the machinery, without regard to correct mechanical principles, or the natural fitness of their application. This comparison will hold good as to the structure of society, and the welfare of all civilized communities. Machinery is safe while the different portions of the gearing are in good order; but, if this precaution is not attended to, then the stronger the machine the greater the destruction. Government is secure as long as individuals are true to the common cause and aim of that government; but if masses of individuals lose sight of concurrent principles, or become divided in action, then the power of their government is turned against itself, and its tottering ruins are only suitable for a shapeless monument of error.

The invidious distinctions which ignorance and cupidity have endeavored to connect with classification, would require more space to discuss them properly than could be appropriated to such a subject in this magazine; but in confining the present remarks to a defence of the mercantile class, it is hoped that the reader will at once perceive, by an evident parity of reasoning, the absurdity of entertaining intolerant feelings towards *any* class of our fellow-citizens. "Prejudice is the tyrant of the world," and

so far as we harbor prejudice, so far are we the willing slaves of a tyrant whose power would eventually compel us to be traitors to ourselves.

There are some errors occasionally foisted upon public opinion which it is very requisite to analyze and expose, although the exposure may give to the error more temporary importance than it really deserves. Of this nature is the false notion which charges the merchant with being the oppressor of such of his fellow-citizens who are not merchants! It may seem mutually ridiculous to meet such an absurd charge with any degree of serious attention; but, as the motives of those who make use of a charge so sweeping and slanderous cannot be very good, it might serve the cause of right and truth to make some calm and rational inquiry on the subject. For this purpose we will assume that the charges alleged come from parties who are willing to hear reason; and, also, that whether the merchants are or are not in need of a champion, they do not object to having their conduct, as a class, compared with that of any other class of our citizens. These two positions are essential to the foundation and applicability of our argument; otherwise, we should only fall into the same error that others have done, by increasing divisional asperities, and leaving the whole subject matter no better than we found it.

That such may not be the fate of these remarks, we sincerely hope that the inquiry will induce a discriminating view of "the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth," because, in this country, where public opinion regulates the weight of governmental power, it is of the first importance that our minds should be free from prejudice and distrust, so that we may be unanimous in the progress of our improvement. Above all, we must endeavor to foster no second-hand opinions: we might as well have a second-hand government.

Now this aforesaid outcry about the interests of the mercantile class being opposed to those of the working class, or of any other class, is one of the most shallow and superficial of all second-hand opinions; it is "flat, stale, and unprofitable," even to those who permit themselves to make use of it. It is an obsolete and exploded trick which suited the purposes, in former times, of those despots who wished, Lucifer-like, to "divide and conquer" the people, by arraying them in classes, and instigating them against each other. There is no occasion for any display of learning to prove this to the reader; unfortunately, history records too many well-known instances of a people divided among themselves. Therefore, it particularly behooves us to cherish truth, banish error, and maintain our unanimity and integrity by all the sacred ties of brotherhood and self-preservation.

There is a peculiar feature in the classification of society in the United States which is not so generally observed in any other civilized nation, except England, and perhaps Holland. This peculiarity is shown by a general knowledge of the business transactions and commercial usages which attend a trading community being brought constantly in use among the every-day occurrences of life. In this young and thriving country, the division of labor has contributed much towards a classification of the people; but this classification is only adopted so far as to help the general good, because it has been found, in practice, to be the best policy. The spirit of our population is decidedly of a trading character, and the general spread of intelligence makes the routine of mercantile transactions familiar to all classes. In fact, it would be very difficult to decide who are and who

are not merchants in this bustling community. Apart from the considerations of enterprise and ambition, which are the prevailing characteristics of our citizens, there are many moral and physical influences which contribute to the general adoption of business habits and mercantile customs. These influences are created by the immense size of our territory ; the necessity of finding a market for our produce and manufactures ; and, above all, by the facilities which education and our free institutions afford to the industrious and persevering members of every class. In a nation thus happily favored, it is to be hoped that the vulgar prejudices and petty distinctions of feudalism may never be revived. *The classification of employments does not necessarily cause a classification of interests.*

By an examination of the struggles of improvement with which the social condition of man has been ameliorated, history would point out to us the positive injustice as well as the absurdity of supposing that mercantile men lack patriotism or local attachment. In all countries we find them aiding the efforts of philanthropy by their wealth, and balancing the scales of justice with their influence. In this country, the merchants have from the earliest periods of its history displayed liberality, courage, self-denial, and firmness to a degree which has won the admiration of the world ; and this not merely in matters of business, but in the combats of opinion and the struggles of principle. In the "time that tried men's souls," how many, as devoted in heart as John Hancock, stepped forward and adventured their all to sail under the flag of liberty ! The history of the United States, as a nation, also proves that in defence of constitutional freedom and rational liberty the aid of merchants has never been withheld, for their names are connected by their patriotic and liberal services with every stage of national progress, and every step of universal improvement.

In taking a general and particular view of the state of society in all parts of the world, it will be seen that merchants are prominent in cheering on every good work, and "aiding and abetting," by their enterprise, the present comforts and prospective hopes of their fellow-countrymen. We cannot all be great and powerful—we cannot all be merchants—all merchants cannot be rich,—but we may all act well our parts, according to our means. This is about as correct a view as can be taken of a general principle ; and here we cannot fail to perceive that merchants nobly act up to the high standard of their imputed position in society. If a new invention is to be brought into notice whereby ingenuity and industry will be rewarded, the merchant comes forward and supports the inventor with capital sufficient to make the invention a public benefit, and yield a profit to all concerned. If any precious drug or article of absolute necessity is required from the most remote part of the world, the enterprise of the merchant will procure it, and then we can avail ourselves of its proximity whenever it suits our own convenience. If any of the products of the earth are scanty, high-priced, or collected at distant points, the merchant is the best agent to be employed in such a case, because he has the opportunities for first observing the difficulty, and also for taking the most effectual methods to overcome it ; by which means he increases his own business and serves the interests of all other classes of his countrymen, in preserving the uniformity of prices, and preventing the probability of famine, or any irregularity of supply.

These are a few of the ways in which mercantile men are accustomed

to create the wealth for which they are so renowned. But, although their money is made by the most hazardous enterprises and speculations, they are equally renowned for the generosity, good taste, and benevolence with which their private relations and public proceedings are characterized. Difficult as would be the task of tracing the operations of merchants when they are in pursuit of wealth, the attempt to follow them in "going about doing good" would be much more difficult, because no mortal can possibly trace the high resolves of philanthropy by which the mind of another may be influenced. The merchant, if rich, has much in his power, and a great moral responsibility to sustain. We can only judge of them by the actions which we see and know them to achieve. Wherever there is distress to alleviate, merit to reward, or enterprise to be fostered, there the merchants will be found, with hearts to feel, heads to conceive, and hands to perform. Their extensive communications with, and transactions for all the nations of the earth, teach them a knowledge of human nature which is of essential service in guiding and regulating the benevolence of the heart. It is not merely by money that merchants reciprocate the gains which they accumulate; it is by the hours they devote to public business; by the kind encouragement of the young and enterprising; by the patronage of the fine arts; and by seeking markets abroad that will cherish and support every department of our domestic industry.

There is no flattery in these statements. They are only a circumstantial relation of historical facts, to which it has become necessary to refer, in order that our minds may not be misled by any unfounded prejudice against merchants, as a class.

One more general remark, and we will then resign the whole argument to the mercy of the reader. This remark must and will be self-evident, on looking round upon the characters and dispositions of our fellow-men, for we may plainly observe that *the individuals of mankind are possessed of differently constituted minds*, and that while some are inclined for retirement and quietude, others have a decided bias for adventure, daring, speculation, and perseverance. This fact being undeniable, it also follows, as a consequence, that so long as different men have different qualities of mind, some will be farmers while others are mechanics; some will be sailors while others are soldiers; and some will be wholesale merchants while others are retail tradesmen. Let us suppose a case:—a wealthy man, who has but little speculative energy, fits out a ship for the East Indies; when the ship is about to depart, he feels alarmed at the magnitude of the undertaking; and when she is gone, he is in a nervous fever about her safety. This feeling soon becomes so intense that he is unfitted for other business, finds himself alarmingly ill, and wishes that he had never made such a vast risk. Another man, of equal wealth, but with a decided energy of character, sends a ship at his own risk to the same destination. His mind and manner will be very different. Although fully alive to the important interests involved in the safety of the ship, he will only occasionally inquire of a mercantile friend or at the insurance office, "any news of my ship?" Now these two instances show that different powers of mind are possessed by different persons. In the first instance, the gentleman would retire from such speculations in future, because the attendant anxiety was too intense for his peace of mind. In the second instance, the probability is that the more voyages such a man had risked, the more he would want to risk, because the repetition of the

excitement was pleasing to the bias of his mind. While human nature is human nature, some men will be better qualified for particular occupations than others. The sort of business that would be a pleasurable pursuit to one man might prove an unsupportable excitement to another. From this physiological fact we may clearly see that if the whole frame of society, as at present constituted, were to be disjointed and abolished, the classifications of choice, ability, and circumstances would still remain.

To conclude. When we hear any class of our citizens spoken of in a disdainful manner, let us be cautious how we depend upon the statements of the speaker. Classification was originally intended to facilitate business by the division of labor, and to adapt the business of life to the disposition of each individual in the community. For example, one man writes a book, another prints it, another binds it, and others sell it. The result is, that the reader purchases it more conveniently and gets a better article for his money than if the writing, printing, binding, and selling were all done by one person. With the aid of the classification of employments, we are continually attempting to reach perfection in every branch of production. These are among the principal uses of classification. On the other hand, by drawing invidious distinctions between different classes in the same community; by creating strife, discord, and ill-feeling among the various departments of business; by distracting the public mind with unwarrantable prejudices, so that the onward march of social improvement is retarded by the petty jealousies of mistaken feeling; by dividing the people in masses against each other, and hiding from them the knowledge of their united and real power;—these discordant operations show some of the many abuses of classification.

ART. VI.—REMARKS ON "THE COMPUTATION OF INTEREST."

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine.

THERE are perhaps but few subjects (simple in themselves) in regard to which greater diversity of opinion exists, than upon the question of the most expeditious and correct method for the computation of interest.

In the December number of the Magazine I find some seven or eight pages devoted to this subject, and the formulas of the writer are all predicated upon 360 days to the year.

The writer of this is well aware that in calculations of interest, many are in the habit of assuming the year to consist of 12 months of 30 days each, or 360 days for the year. This might answer very well for small amounts, if it be admitted that a principle may be taken for small amounts that will produce false results when applied to comparatively large amounts.

It will be found upon examination that the formulas given in the article above referred to, in a six per cent calculation, will give eight cents and three mills per annum on the \$100 too much; and on seven per cent calculations, still more. This may be considered a small matter, and the reply will be given, that "*custom* has established the law of interest as above." It is true that in absence of statute law common usage would

take the place of law, but could not be put in the place of such law. Such being the case, there are consequences growing out of the above method of computation that are worthy of our consideration.

We will here admit that if the year is taken at 360 days, the calculations and formulas of the writer of the article referred to are correct. But should the question arise upon a plea of usury, under the statute prescribing the legal rate of interest, would the plea be sustained where interest had been calculated at 360 days to the year? For illustration we will suppose a case.

Abel draws his note for \$10,000, having 264 days to run, and said note is discounted by Brutus at 7 per cent per annum, B. calculating the interest as follows:—

$$\frac{10,000 \times 264}{60} = \$440$$

Add $\frac{1}{4}$ of 440 73.33

Interest at 7 per cent \$513.33

We will now calculate the interest on \$10,000 for 264 days, on the principle of 365 days to the year. The statement at length would be, Compound Proportion, as follows:—

If \$100 for 365 days is \$7, what will \$10,000 be for 264 days? For the purpose of making it plain, we will make two statements in Simple Proportion—thus:—

As 100 : 7 :: 10,000 = \$700; interest for one year.

Again, 365 : 700 :: 264 = \$506.30; interest for 264 days.

For proof, we will now change the statement—thus:—

$$\frac{7 \times 264}{365} = 5063 \times 10,000 = \$506.30; \text{ interest for 264 days.}$$

I would here remark that multipliers may be obtained for any amount, or number of days, by the above operation—and it is in truth the integral calculus of "Burritt's Universal Multipliers." As an illustration take the following:—

Required the interest on \$100 for 264 days at 7 per cent.

Operation : $5063 \times 100 = \$5.06.3$

Again—Required The interest on \$200 for 264 days at 7 per cent.

Operation : $5063 \times 100 = \$10.12.6$

We will now show the difference in calculations based on 360 or 365 days.

Interest on \$10,000 for 264 days, 360 to the year,	
as before shown	\$513.33
Interest on \$10,000 for 264 days, 365 to the year,	
as before shown	506.30
	<hr/>
Difference on \$10,000	\$7.03

The foregoing will be sufficient to show the difference between calculations based on the principle of 360 days and that of 365 days, leaving the question suggested as to the plea of usury, to the decision of those better qualified to decide.

It is the opinion of the writer, that no principle should be adopted simply

because it abridges the labor : but if processes can be shortened, and combining brevity with correctness, the accountant's labors are sufficiently arduous to justify him in adopting such measures.

Permit me to offer to your readers the following formulas, which are but little known, but will be found equally correct for five or five millions of dollars, and for ten or ten thousand days, and in their operation perfectly simple, and can be used with facility in the calculation of interest on single sums, or many sums taken together, as we shall hereafter show.

Statement.

For 5 per cent, as	7300	:	principal	::	days=interest.
" 6	" 6083	:	do.	::	do. = do.
" 7	" 5214	:	do.	::	do. = do.
" 8	" 4562	:	do.	::	do. = do.

Illustration.

Required the interest on \$1200, for 40 days, at 6 and 7 per cent.

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{6 per cent.} \\ 1200 \times 40 \\ \hline 6083 \end{array} = \$7.89.0$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{7 per cent.} \\ 1200 \times 40 \\ \hline 5214 \end{array} = \$9.20.5$$

We will now show how the interest may be found on two or more sums by one operation.

An account, made up of the following dates and items, is to be settled on the first of January, with interest at the rate of 7 per cent per annum.

Aug. 15 \$700
Sept. 19 400
Dec. 16 200

Now from Aug. 15 to Jan. 1 is 138 days.

" Sept. 19 to Jan. 1 is 103 "
" Dec. 16 to Jan. 1 is 15 "

Statement.

$$\begin{array}{r} 700 \times 138 = 96,600 \\ 400 \times 103 = 41,200 \\ 200 \times 15 = 3,000 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Divide by 5214 $\div 140,800 = \$27.00$
The interest as shown above—\$27.

Proof.

Interest on \$700 for 138 days	.	.	\$18.52.7
" 400 " 103 "	.	.	7.90.2
" 200 " 15 "	.	.	57.5
			<hr/>
			\$27.00

The foregoing may be considered by some as of but little importance ; but that it may be seen more fully, let any person take the debt of the state of New York, and calculate the interest thereon for 359 days in both ways, and then ask himself—Would the proper officers be willing to pay the interest calculated upon the principle of 360 days to the year ?

As it is proposed to give in your next number a method for the "Equation of Payments," I shall omit making any remarks on that subject, until I shall have had an opportunity of examining said method.

As an apology for this communication, I would quote the language of the writer before referred to. "We should not be content, therefore, while we suppose ourselves in possession of useful knowledge, to retain it unshared by others. If it has been valuable to us, it may be so to them also; and its usefulness to us is unimpaired by its becoming common property."

Since writing the foregoing, I have been informed that decisions have been had in our courts sustaining the plea of usury where interest was calculated at 360 days to the year; if so, the foregoing is worthy of consideration.

W. P.

ART. VII.—LAWS RELATIVE TO DEBTOR AND CREDITOR.

NUMBER XIII.

OF ENGLAND.*

The Interests, Rights, and Remedies of the Creditor.

CONTRACTS IN GENERAL.

CONTRACTS are either by specialty, that is, by deed under seal; or simple, which are not under seal: and simple contracts are either written or verbal.

In trading and mercantile business, as well as in the affairs of private life, engagements and contracts are entered into, whereby debts are contracted and liabilities incurred in so many ways; and the remedies consequent on the non-payment of a debt, or non-fulfilment of an agreement or contract, or other wrong with reference thereto, being equally numerous, we shall first consider the most usual modes in which debts are contracted and liabilities incurred, keeping it in mind that our inquiry is confined to cases where a contract, either written or verbal, subsists.

A debt may be contracted, or liability incurred, either by the purchase or hire of the merchandise, goods, or property of, or belonging to, another, or by the loan of money, or fee services or work performed; and that in all the various ways in which man employs his fellow man; or by warranty or insurance; or by the assumption or guarantee of the debt of another; or by becoming bail, or surety, or security, for another; or by the non-performance, insufficient, or improper performance, of a contract of agreement, express or implied; or by the performance of that which has been contracted and agreed shall not be done; or by engaging to indemnify another: and the contracts or agreements under which such several debts or liabilities may be incurred are either by specialty or simple contract.

Contracts by specialty, or under seal, being of a higher degree than simple contracts, we proceed first to consider

SPECIALTY CONTRACTS.

These are either by indenture or deed poll.

A deed is an instrument in writing, sealed with the seal or seals of the party or parties entering into it, and delivered by them in the presence of

* By an English Barrister at Law.

a witness or witnesses: Where, as is frequently the case, there are mutual stipulations in a deed, and it is intended that all parties should be equally bound by the instrument, as far as its terms extend to them, the deed is indented on the edge of the top or side, cut in and out, (which originated in ancient practice when there were several parts of the same deed to be held by the respective parties thereto, to guard against forgery or fraudulent substitution,) and such deed is called an indenture. Where only one of the parties to the contract (though more than one person may be included,) is bound, that is, where there is nothing on the part of the other party or parties to such contract to be covenanted or performed—or such last-mentioned parties take a deed from the other contracting parties on whose part the covenant or covenants are, such deed being executed on one side only, is called a deed poll, not being indented, but the top and sides plain or shaved close.

The contracts under seal (or the greater part of each,) are by deeds poll; (though many of them may be by indenture, particularly agreements where there are mutual covenants or undertakings,) and such deeds poll are for the most part bonds, either for securing the payment of a debt which may have been contracted in any one or more of the various ways in which one person may become indebted to another; or for securing an annuity to another; or for the payment of, or as guarantee or as security for the debt of another person; or for the performance or non-performance of some specified act or acts, either by the party or parties executing such bond, or by another person; also agreements in which may be contained covenants to perform, or to abstain from doing, a particular act, or particular acts, either by the party entering into such covenants, or by another person; apprenticeship deeds, charter parties, (which relate to the hire of shipping,) and policies whereby life or property is insured. And though these are the most usual contracts under seal, yet there is nothing to prevent parties who are desirous so to do, to enter into any contract whatever by deed under seal. An alteration, however, in the form of words would be necessary to make a contract not under seal suit its altered form, if intended to be converted into a deed—except in the case of a bond or obligation—which will be good, whatever form of words are used, if sealed and delivered, provided the party making the same declares, or makes it appear therein, that he is indebted to the person to whom the same is made in a given sum. It may, however, be here observed that a writing or obligation thus made, though binding on the executors and administrators of the person making the same, does not affect the heir of such person, unless he be expressly named in it, the disadvantage of which will be seen in the next number of this Magazine.

The advantages derived from having a debt or other engagement secured under the seal of the debtor or party to be held liable, are, first—that contracts under seal do not require any consideration to render them valid—fraud, such as an intention to defraud just creditors, or illegality, (that which the law prohibits,) being the only circumstances which, being proved, will affect their validity; an advantage not possessed by any other contract, bills of exchange and promissory notes only excepted; and these only in the hands of holders having given valuable consideration for them: and the reason for this exception in favor of these instruments is, that being negotiable they might fall into the hands of a party innocent of the fact that no consideration has in the first instance been given for them; and

such holder, having given money or other valuable consideration, is not to be prejudiced by the circumstance of no consideration having been originally given.

Another advantage attending contracts under seal is, that the heir of the party entering into them may be bound ; by which means a debt thus secured takes priority over all specialty debts wherein the heir is not bound, and over all simple contract debts.

A further advantage attending debts by specialty is, that they are not affected by the statutes of limitation (acts of parliament limiting the period within which the creditor must sue his debtor,) in so serious a manner as simple contract debts, the latter being barred (that is, the recovery of them prevented,) after a lapse of six years ; whereas, a specialty debt has twenty years to run before it is barred ; or, in other words, an action to recover the amount of the one must be brought against the debtor, or, if he be dead, against his representatives, within six years next after the debt accrued, or within the same period of the last acknowledgment of its being due : the period of time with reference to specialty debts is, by a recent act of parliament, 3 & 4 W. IV., c. 42, s. 3, limited to twenty years.

SIMPLE CONTRACTS.

These are either in writing (but not under seal,) or verbal ; and with regard to all simple contracts, (which embrace all that are not under seal,) the law makes no difference ; whether they are in writing or verbal they are equally simple contracts ; nor is there any thing that requires that they should be in writing, except bills of exchange and promissory notes, which must be in writing, (such writing however is not confined to pen and ink but may be in pencil ;) and except also in the following cases, which are expressly provided for by an act of parliament, commonly called the Statute of Frauds, being the 29th Charles II., chap. 3.

1st. Where an executor or administrator promises to answer damages, or a debt, out of his own estate, due from the estate of his testator or intestate.

2d. Where one man undertakes to answer for the debt, default, or miscarriage of another.

3d. Where an agreement is made upon consideration of marriage. (This does not extend to promises of marriage.)

4th. Where there is an agreement that is not to be performed within the space of one year from the making thereof.

In all of which cases the agreement on which the promise is founded must be in writing, or some memorandum thereof, and signed by the party to be charged thereby, or therewith, or by some other person, legally authorized by such party. It has been decided that this authority to another must not necessarily be in writing.

The foregoing engagements or promises, being considered of too great importance to rest on a mere verbal promise, the provision by the above-mentioned act was made ; so that in all cases where a debt is due by one person, and payment of that debt is promised by another from whom it was not originally due, that promise must be in writing, for instance :—If two parties go together into a warehouse or shop, and, upon the one selecting and giving an order for goods, the other engages verbally to pay for those goods, (in whatever form of words that promise is made or given,) he is

not bound by it—it must be reduced to writing ; and, even when in writing, it will be seen, on reference to the next page, that some consideration must exist and be expressed in such written engagement. What the nature of that consideration is, will also be then seen.

Simple contracts embrace by far the greater number of transactions, both in trade and business, and also in private affairs. The more usual and principal may be here mentioned, and are, bills of exchange and promissory notes ; contracts relating to the loan of money, or the sale or hire of cattle, goods, or merchandise ; warranties, whereby one warrants the goodness, or soundness, or particular quality of an article or thing sold to another ; guarantees, whereby one person becomes answerable for the debts, or default, or miscarriage, or misconduct of another ; insurances, whereby life or property is insured ; contracts to serve or to hire, as workmen, servants, laborers, &c. ; or to perform works and indemnities, whereby one engages to hold free from expense or cost another in the event of certain specified circumstances ; contracts, express or implied, of bailees, (parties intrusted with the custody of goods or property ;) agents, factors, carriers, and such like.

WRITTEN CONTRACTS.

The advantages of reducing all contracts and agreements into writing must be evident to every thinking mind, and that from a principle which all acknowledge, and to a certain extent, act up to—that of reducing every thing, as far as practicable, to certainty. It is a common caution, when a thing has been proposed, which proposition has been submitted to a friend of him to whom made, “ Let it be in writing.” And why ? for this all-sufficient reason, that there is less liability to misunderstand or misinterpret an engagement when in writing. The memory is treacherous ; sometimes forgetfulness of the precise terms of an agreement, if verbal, occasions a discussion, as to what was really agreed on. Change of circumstances or interested motives may induce unprincipled persons to deny an engagement, or to qualify it, where no qualification really existed. If reduced to writing, a denial of it becomes impossible, from even the most unprincipled ; and forgetfulness of it by one side, immaterial ; since the proof of its having been entered into is in the possession or power of the other side ; and any disagreement as to its nature, terms, or conditions, will be less liable to arise than if left to unassisted memory, for the foregoing reasons, amongst the many that might be urged in favor of the subject. Written contracts are preferable to verbal ones. Written contracts are presumed to contain all the terms and conditions which the parties to them have agreed on ; and no terms or conditions contrary to those expressed will, under any circumstances, be admitted, or be supposed to have existed ; courts of law construing agreements, when reduced to writing, according to the expressed intent of the parties ; and, where any doubt or ambiguity exists, solving that doubt, and deciding on the ambiguity, but not supplying omissions of the parties, or remedying their defects.

But though the terms and conditions of a contract when in writing should all be specified in the contract, they need not all be embodied or expressed in the same document ; but may be contained in several papers, such as letters, from which the whole terms may be collected. Where, however, this is the case, it must be clear that there is a distinct agreement between the parties—that there has been a proposal on one side, and an acceptance

of such proposal on the other ; or a qualified acceptance, which the proposer has in his turn agreed to.

The consideration upon which a contract is entered into, or engagement, or undertaking given, whereby a debt is incurred, is not required to be expressed in such contract, engagement, or undertaking, though in writing, but may be supplied or shown by verbal evidence. This statement, however, must be taken with some qualification. Since, in the case of a person becoming answerable for the debt of another, which must be in writing, it is settled that the consideration for such agreement or engagement must be therein stated ; and, if not positively, at any rate, in terms from which such consideration may be inferred. The following is an example which it is thought may prove useful to many who may be in the situation of being about to take the engagement of a third person for the debt of another, from which will be seen what is requisite to make such engagement valid and binding.

“ As my brother owes you 28*l.* for boots and shoes, I will pay you that sum for him on the 1st of next month.

“ THOS. NOAKES.
1 Dec. 1838.”

“ To Mr. Jones.

This written undertaking is not binding, because it is for the debt of another person, and no consideration for it is stated on the face of it, or can be inferred from the terms of it. Had it been thus worded :—

“ In consideration of your undertaking not to arrest my brother (who is about to leave England) for the debt of 28*l.* which he owes you for boots and shoes, I hereby undertake to pay the amount on the 1st of next month.

“ THOS. NOAKES.
1 Dec. 1838.”

“ To Mr. Jones.

it would have been valid ; because the consideration for it was the forbearing to arrest the brother. With regard to the amount or value of the consideration necessary to support a promise in writing to pay the debt of another, it is settled that, if the party with or to whom the engagement or promise is entered into or made do or perform any act, however slight, that he was not bound by law to do, such performance will be a sufficient consideration. Thus, in the example given, Mr. Jones undertook to forbear from arresting the brother of Thomas Noakes, which was an act that he was not bound to do. So that, in all cases where a contract is entered into (except it be under seal) to pay the debt of another person, there must be some consideration as a foundation for and to support the promise stated in the contract.

When, however, such consideration may be inferred from the terms of the engagements, it will be considered sufficient. Thus,

“ To Messrs. A. & B.—Gentlemen,—I hereby undertake to pay for any goods which you may deliver to Mr. S.”

Here it is evident that A. & B. delivered the goods to S. on the above undertaking ; and it is the undertaking which is the consideration for the delivery of the goods. So, also, the future delivery of the goods is the consideration for the undertaking.

With regard to bills of exchange and promissory notes, and all contracts

which are original,—that is, for the debts, acts, or defaults, of the party himself who enters into them,—the consideration is not required to be expressed in them, but may be proved by evidence ; they can never, however, be enforced, unless founded upon valuable or sufficient consideration (except in the case of bills of exchange and promissory notes in the hands, if holden for valuable consideration, as stated in page 50 ;) and the burden of proving adequate consideration is thrown upon the party seeking to recover the amounts due, or claimed to be due, under them, if the party sued impeach the consideration or title, he being at liberty to show that there was no consideration ; or, if any, that it was illegal : and though a consideration may be expressed in such contract, (which expressed consideration would be valid,) yet it is in the power of a defendant to show that such was not, in fact, the consideration ; and that the real consideration, or a part of it, was illegal.

Illegal consideration may be thus defined :—The doing any matter or thing which is prohibited by law, or declared unlawful ; or if a penalty be attached by law to the performance of such matter or thing, though no prohibition be declared in such law. Such act or thing is illegal ; and is no consideration, or, rather, is an illegal consideration : and any contract entered into for or about any such matter or thing is void. As, for example—

An agreement or undertaking to pay a sum of money in consideration of procuring an illegal marriage, or in consideration of doing, or aiding, or assisting in doing any act which is unlawful, is void.

VERBAL CONTRACTS.

These are either express or implied.

By express contracts are meant those wherein nothing is left to be implied or supposed, but the terms of which are fixed and expressed by the parties to such contracts, being created by the words of such parties.

As, if A undertakes to perform a certain act, as to build a house for a given sum, this is an express contract.

By implied contracts are meant such wherein the terms thereof really exist, though no expression of assent thereto, or adoption thereof, has been given by the contracting parties ; it being supposed by the law to have been their meaning and intention to make those terms ; and, therefore, the law implies such. For example—

If A employs B to build a house, for which B is to be paid a fair and reasonable sum, it is not sufficient that B performs his part of the contract by running up, in an improper and unworkmanlike manner the four walls, and other necessary parts of the building ; in the absence of all agreement on the subject, there is an implied contract on his part to build such house in a proper and workmanlike manner. This is an implied contract. Again, on the indorsement of a bill of exchange, it is implied that, if the drawer or acceptor do not pay the amount of it to him to whom it is indorsed, the indorser will pay it on having due notice of its non-payment.

EXPRESS CONTRACTS.

Where there is an express contract no different contract can be implied ; the courts of law dealing with an express contract in the same manner as if it had been reduced to writing, with this difference, that every verbal contract is open to objection, and to be opposed by parol evidence, that is,

evidence by word of mouth. A verbal contract stated by one party to have been made in certain precise terms may be denied by the other side to have been so made, and though truth may ultimately prevail, (we say "may," for it is not possible always to arrive at the truth; and if the truth cannot be arrived at, and some decision must be come to, that decision will be made according to what is proved, and that will be taken to be the truth, though possibly it may not be,) yet there is a possibility of difficulty and doubt in all verbal contracts; and, therefore, they cannot, even though express, be reduced to the same certainty as written contracts.

It may be laid down, that every contract or engagement entered into between two or more parties, in which they themselves provide for and fix, though verbally, the terms and conditions of the contract or engagement, without leaving any part of it to implication, or to be supplied by presumption of law, may be called express.

And some contracts, though express, may involve, in addition to the express contract, an implied one; but such implied contract cannot be different, or contrary to, or inconsistent with, the express contract. For example—

In the instance before stated of a builder engaging to build a house for a given sum; this is an express contract, and this further implied contract is involved therein, though not expressed, (if the consideration be fair and reasonable,) that he shall do the work in a proper and workmanlike manner.

IMPLIED CONTRACTS.

These have arisen from the complicated relations of society, and have been dictated by justice and reason; each member of society being bound by the rules formed by the community of which he may be a member. The law has therefore implied that, where no express contract is entered into between parties, but yet a contract subsists, each of those parties shall perform what duty and justice requires; as, for example,

If A purchase goods of a tradesman without stipulating for the price, the law implies an agreement and promise on his part, to pay the real value of those goods.

Or if a carrier, in consideration of payment, takes from any house a parcel to be delivered to another person, the law implies that he undertook to take care of such parcel, and if, through his negligence, the parcel be lost, he is liable to pay for it. The above are familiar examples of implied contracts; but the numerous and complicated nature of implied contracts, prevents more than a cursory notice of them here: they may be thus briefly stated.

When one person employs another in any capacity to work or labor, or transact business, or do any matter or thing for and on his behalf, without any agreement as to the amount of pay or remuneration, the law implies a promise and undertaking to pay a reasonable compensation; and, in return, the law implies an undertaking, on the part of the person employed, to do the work or labor, or transact the business for such other party, in a proper and business like manner.

If money has been received belonging to another without any liability subsisting, or reason assigned, or consideration for it; or if paid by mistake, or if laid out by one party for and at the request of another; the

law implies, in the former cases, a promise to account for the money so received ; and, in the latter, a promise of re-payment.

Where a person sets up as, and undertakes the duties or trusts of any office, or situation, or employment, such as a public officer, an attorney, carrier, wharfinger, factor, farrier, or the like, the law implies, on the part of all such parties, a contract with those who employ them to use due care, diligence and skill ; and to act with honesty and integrity in their several offices or employments ; and any loss or injury arising to those who may employ them, for the non-performance or insufficient or improper performance of such implied contract, renders them liable to an action for damages.

Having entered as fully as the limits of our Magazine will allow into the general nature of contracts, we shall proceed in the next number to consider the precautions to be observed and taken on entering into such contracts.

ART. VIII.—FAMILIAR SCENES IN THE LIFE OF A CLERK.

NUMBER II.

THE interest which clerks generally feel in the business and success of their employers, is, I believe, estimated too cheaply ; and that many feel so little, is, perhaps, as often the fault of their employers as their own. The majority of clerks are young men who have hopes and prospects of business before them. They have not yet thrown off that trusting confidence and generous friendship peculiar to youth—they are disposed to think well of themselves and the world, and they feel it deeply when too great a distance is maintained between themselves and their superiors. They have not become so selfish, cold and calculating as men are apt to when they grow older, and find all their pleasure in reckoning profits and per cents. They are ardent, impassionate, generous, and sympathizing—they cannot enter into the purely selfish feelings of another, and ardently endeavor to promote *their* interests ; but they will do any thing for the promptings of a fellow feeling : their service is reluctant and venal, if they are looked down upon, but prompt and disinterested when taken by the hand. Most of them have tastes of their own, which may be safely cultivated, and ought to be encouraged ; and none of them, perhaps, are so low in their ambitious views, as to be content to spend a life merely in pursuit of a living. They have hopes and expectations ; and to be placed on a par with the dray-horse, to perform as much work as their strength and faculties will enable them to do, and to be discharged when it is done, is to them the most degrading servitude.

A good clerk feels that he has an interest in the credit and success of his employer beyond the amount of his salary ; and with the close of every successful year, he feels that he too, by his assiduity and fidelity, has added something to his capital—something to his future prospects, and something to his support if overtaken with adversity ; and a good merchant encourages and reciprocates all these feelings.

I have in my mind's eye at this moment a gentleman of Massachu-

setts, who is still living, and retired upon a large fortune, in the enjoyment of a green and happy old age, whose generous and paternal regard for his clerks I shall never forget. He had always several, and when faithful, generally retained them in his employment for years. Although much scattered over the world, as their interest or inclinations have led them in the pursuit of business, those living, so far as I know, are all distinguished for their integrity and high character as merchants. He was a firm supporter of the government under Mr. Jefferson's and Mr. Madison's administrations, and an advocate of the war of 1812. Although extensively engaged in foreign commerce and a ship-owner, he approved the measure of the embargo, which compelled him to lay up his ships. This curtailed his business greatly, but still he kept his clerks in employment who were with him before and wished to remain, although he reduced their salaries a small per centage, to compare with the times and their usefulness; and he did the same thing in the war of 1812. Although a supporter of the war to the end of it, no man was more heartily rejoiced at the declaration of peace; and notwithstanding that the war had more and firmer supporters at its close than at its commencement, the joy that thrilled through the town on the announcement of peace was universal, and can only be imagined by those who witnessed its extravagance.

It is the custom in the eastern towns on the alarm of fire for the whole population to turn out. The news of peace arrived in the dead of night—the thermometer at sixteen below zero—and the inhabitants were first alarmed by the merry peal of bells. The streets were soon thronged with people. I was then a young man of 18, a clerk, and an inmate of the house of my employer. I of course turned out with the feelings of a boy always desirous of being first on such an occasion. As I rushed into the cold air of the street, slamming the door after me, I set up a ringing shout—"Fire-e-e!" "Where is it?" asked another, as he issued from the house opposite. "Peace-e-e! you ——— fools—hurra!" cried a man who at this moment came running through the street from the point whence the alarm had sprung. Coarse as this reply was, it excited none of the pugnacious qualities for which the firemen in this city are somewhat celebrated, but in the surprise it occasioned, I stopped short for a moment, and then catching the man's enthusiasm, I set up another shout—"Hurra-a!" The chamber window over my head was now lifted, and a night-cap with the old gentleman's head in it, (as boys were in the habit of designating their employers, whether they were of the age of twenty-five or sixty,) was thrust two feet out into the cold air. "What is it?" he asked, in tones of anxious surprise. "Peace-e-e!" I yelled out, and started on a run for the stage office to find out the truth, while the "old gentleman," with no less enthusiasm, thrust himself into his integuments, and sallied out for the same purpose, forgetting, as his wife said, to let down the window before he went, which gave her a cold for a week afterward.

In the course of an hour all was confusion of joy. The "Truckmen" got out their teams—some of them loaded their sleds with a barrel of tar, which they set fire to and went galloping through the town. Some public places were illuminated, and notwithstanding the extreme cold, for the remainder of the night, the streets and public places were thronged with gladsome men and noisy boys, expressing their tumultuous joy by every kind of extravagance. At sunrise, the truckmen, who had illuminated the town with their blazing tar, met together at the head of a wharf

in a great thoroughfare, and throwing their combustibles into a heap, they piled on all the empty boxes and loose signs they could lay hold of, while some of them unhitched their horses, and tumbled their sleds upon the fire, as a sacrifice to their love of country and of peace.

The house-maids partook the general joy, and gave us our breakfast of steaming-hot cakes and coffee, at peep of day, (the best-conditioned people were content with rye and pea coffee in those days ;) and that morning, I believe every store in the town was open when the sun rose. It was scarcely seven o'clock when the merchant here spoken of was at his office, whom—although the two are not to be identified, yet by the same liberty I took in the last sketch—I will call Mr. Mason. The clerks, four in number, were already at their post, and met their employer with a smile each. "Well, boys," said he, "this is good news—now *we* must be up and doing." He seldom used the first person, I, but spoke to his clerks, and of them, as being part and parcel with himself. "We shall have our hands full now," he continued, "but we can do as much as anybody."

That promptness of action, on which Americans, and particularly American merchants pride themselves as a part of their character, and which was so conspicuous in New York just after the great fire, is not of recent origin.

Mr. Mason was the owner and part owner of several ships, which during the war had been hauled ashore three miles up the river, and dismantled, and they were now enclosed by a bay of solid ice, for the whole distance, from one to two feet thick, while the weather was so cold that when broken up the pieces would unite and congeal again in an hour or two ; but this formed no discouragement in the present case. It would be a month before the ice would yield to the season, and that would give time for merchants in other places, where the harbors were open, to be in the markets abroad before him. The decision was therefore made on the instant. "Reuben," said Mr. Mason to one of the clerks, as soon as the greeting was past, and he had told them his intentions, "go out and collect as many laborers as possible to go up the river ; Charles, do you go and find Mr. ———, the rigger, and Mr. ———, the sail-maker, and tell them I want to see them immediately ; John, go and engage half a dozen truckmen for to-day and to-morrow ; Stephen, hunt up as many caulkers and gravers as you can find, and engage them to work ;" and Mr. Mason then sallied out himself to provide the implements for ice-breaking, and before twelve o'clock more than a hundred men were three miles up the river, clearing away the ships and cutting ice, which they sawed out in large squares and then shoved them under the main body, to open the channel. The roofing over the ships was torn off, and the clatter of caulkers' mallets was like the rattling of a hail storm—loads of rigging were passing up on the ice—riggers had buckled on their belt and knife—sail-makers were plying the needle, and the whole was such a busy scene as had not been witnessed in the town for years. Reuben, who went up to look after some of the proceedings, engaged as heartily in sawing ice, when he had an opportunity of doing so, as any laborer among them. Before night the ships were afloat, and moved some distance in the channel, and by the time they had reached the wharf—which was eight or ten days—their rigging and spars were aloft, their upper works caulked, and every thing in a great state of forwardness for sea.

It was late in the evening, when the clerks and Mr. Mason were all

again in the office, and the latter, after commending them for their cheerful and energetic performance of duty, signified his intention of increasing the salary of the two elder ones one hundred dollars, and the junior ones fifty dollars, from that day. Except Reuben, they all remained with him for several years, much devoted to his service, until they established themselves in business in different parts of the country with the patronage and support of Mr. Mason. Two of them have paid the debt of nature, after an honorable though short career as merchants. Reuben soon took a fancy to go abroad. He first went out as supercargo to Batavia, and afterward became connected with a house in Cuba, where he realized a fortune, and has returned to Massachusetts to enjoy it, still in the vigor of his manhood, and respected more for his integrity and firmness of character, than for his handsome fortune.

ART. IX.—CONDITION OF POLAND.

COMMERCIAL POLICY OF POLAND BEFORE DISMEMBERMENT—COMMERCIAL POLICY SUBSTITUTED BY RUSSIA—POLAND AN AGRICULTURAL COUNTRY BEFORE ITS DISMEMBERMENT—PRODUCE—POLISH CURRENCY—PRICE OF ARTICLES OF MERCHANDISE—PRICE OF LABOR IN POLAND—COMPARATIVE PRICE OF WEARING APPAREL—LIVE-STOCK, ETC.—EFFECTS OF RUSSIAN POLICY, ETC.

WE are indebted to Major G. Tochman, a Polish exile, for the following extracts from a letter addressed by him to a gentleman of Boston. Mr. Tochman's object in lecturing in the principal cities and villages of the United States, is to correct the misrepresentations as to the history and present condition of the political affairs of that patriotic but oppressed nation, and the letter of Mr. T. was written to satisfy the inquiries of his Boston correspondent. The extracts contain information that will prove interesting, not only to the commercial, but general reader.

Poland, before the dismemberment, was an agricultural country, in the full signification of the term. Its fertile soil prevented the Poles from becoming manufacturers, and its policy was to adopt the commerce of exchange. Always applying the price of their product to the ratio of the price demanded by foreigners for their goods, the Poles were happy in their commercial pursuits; and whilst foreign merchants drew great profits from Poland, the balance of trade was also profitable to the Poles. All classes of our people were at ease, and thousands of our merchants and owners of land made large fortunes.

Since the dismemberment of Poland, a new commercial policy has been substituted by Russia, Austria, and Prussia; which is, to export as much domestic produce as possible, and to receive in exchange nothing but money. Our commerce became now that of our oppressors, and our produce, exported through Dantzic, is now called "*German produce*;" and whatever is exported through Riga and the Black Sea, is called "*Russian produce*;" so that our wheat, timber, iron, leather, hemp, flax, honey, tallow,

&c. &c., are called either German or Russian, although neither German nor Russian hands till the soil which produces them.

The result of this policy has been, that money is very scarce in all parts of Poland, the laboring class is in a wretched condition, and uneasiness is to be seen even in the magnificent palaces built by our fathers. Many a Pole, who possesses thousands of acres of land, and who has thousands of bushels of wheat in his granaries, finds himself often under difficulty to pay taxes and arbitrary contributions. Consequently every thing that the laborer and the soil produce is very cheap—whilst the foreign articles of all kinds are rare, and very dear; the importers of the last being obliged to pay heavy duties, *to maintain this new commercial policy.*

To give you correct ideas in this matter, allow me to explain here the kind, or rather the value of our currency. In the last two or three centuries before the dismemberment of Poland, copper money was almost unknown in Poland—silver and gold were in circulation—the people scarcely knew any other money than dollars and ducats, (a dollar was of the same value as the American; a ducat is a gold piece worth \$2.50 cents:) now a Polish florin, (*zloty polski*), which is equal to one shilling of the State of New York, is divided into thirty very small pieces of copper, called "*grosze*," and for one such piece of copper, that is to say, for one thirtieth of a shilling, you have a loaf of bread, sufficient for the breakfast, dinner, and supper of an American gentleman. The price of wheat is from 18 to 25 cents a bushel: rye, barley, and oats, sell at two thirds or a half of the price of wheat. In some parts of Poland, incorporated with Russia, these articles may be got at a much lower price; whilst for coffee and sugar we must pay from 18 to 25 cents a pound, and for tea from 75 cents to \$3.

The consequence is, that the foreign articles, even of the first necessity, as the above, are used by a very few families, in proportion to the population of the country: scarcely one person in a hundred is rich enough to use coffee and tea in Poland, since it has been dismembered. An owner of two or three hundred acres of well-cultivated land, seldom makes use of any article which does not grow on his soil. As to the laboring class, they never see any. The produce of the soil feeds and clothes them.

Having made you somewhat acquainted with the condition to which our people have been reduced "*by the paternal laws and policy of the governments of Russia, Austria, and Prussia,*" which are recommended by some of the writers in this country, "*as favorable to the mass of the people,*"* I proceed to answer your questions.

A common laborer gains in Poland from 6 to 12½ cents per day; a mechanic seldom more than 25 cents. A female servant, in the country, has from 37 to 75 cents *per month*; a male servant from 50 cents to \$1 *per month*. In the cities, the wages of servants are about one fourth higher. The clothing of the laboring class of both sexes, is comfortable, but very poor—made of linen and woollen cloth, and furs of the country. The whole dress of a country female *per annum*, costs from \$3 to \$6; the dress of a laboring man from \$4 to \$8, including shoes and boots. A pair of shoes used by a laboring female, sells from 18 to 37 cents; and a pair of boots of a laboring man, from 37½ to 75 cents. As to the clothing of a lady, this costs nearly as much as in the United States; the cotton

* Paris Correspondent of the National Intelligencer of the 11th of January, 1840.

and silk stuffs, the ribands and other articles necessary to make ladies' dresses, being almost of the same price throughout Poland as here. It is the same with regard to the dress of a gentleman—only that the ladies' shoes and the gentlemen's boots are cheaper in Poland: such shoes as you pay here \$1.25 for, are selling in Poland for from 25 to 37½ cents; for such boots as cost here \$7 or \$8, we pay from \$2 to \$3. But remember, sir, that to get boots for \$3, you must sell from 12 to 15 bushels of wheat; and the dress of your lady, worth only \$20, will cost you from 80 to 100 bushels of it. A farmer, who has 2,000 bushels of wheat for sale, can buy a silver watch for himself, but not one for his wife; while had he, before the dismemberment of Poland, sold 2,000 bushels of wheat, neither he or his lady and half a dozen of daughters would look at gold watches, not set with diamonds, or at least, with rubies.

The cattle, flocks, and herds, are also very cheap. A milch-cow sells from \$2.50 to \$8; an ox for labor from \$6 to \$15; an ox for slaughter from \$10 to \$30. A horse, such as you pay here \$70 for, is worth in some parts of Poland about \$25; in the parts of the country incorporated with Russia, such a horse is worth *only* from \$7 to \$12. A common sheep sells from 18 cents to \$1. Those called "merino sheep," introduced from Spain, are sold from \$20 to \$100.

The policy which reduced our people to such a condition as this, forced many Poles to open some manufactures of cloth, cotton, silk stuffs, ribands, iron utensils, and others; and all the articles manufactured at home are cheaper by about one third than the articles of the same kind imported from abroad. Some articles are of as good quality as those of the English and French manufacture. But whoever thinks that this is an improvement of the condition of Poland, labors under great mistake: Poland, from its natural situation, can never prosper as a manufacturing state; and the Poles have undertaken to be manufacturers, choosing the least of two evils.

This new industry has not been adopted by the inhabitants of the provinces incorporated with the empire of Russia; the Russian government itself being there the owner of all manufactories, for the purpose of keeping all classes of the Russian subjects under strict and dependant control, and to prevent their communication and intercourse with foreigners; fearing lest such intercourse should open, eventually, the eyes of its slaves.

Yours respectfully,

GASPARD TOCHMAN.

P. S. Allow me to add here, that in consequence of the above described system and policy, in proper Russia all the articles of domestic produce sell at two thirds of the above price—and very often much lower; whilst the foreign articles sell as dear as in Poland, and in some parts of Russia much higher prices are demanded for them. Hence it is, that Russia Proper gives less consumers to the commercial community than even Poland, in her present condition; and this is to be attributed to the fact that the balance of the little trade which this country has with Russia, is always against the United States.

G. T.

ART. X.—COMMERCE OF SOUTHERN PERU.

THE following particulars of the trade of Arica and Tacna in Southern Peru, will probably be of interest to our commercial readers. They are mainly derived from the London Journal of Commerce.

The navigation of Arica from 1829 to the commencement of 1837, the latest date to which the account is made up, is thus stated, arrivals and sailings together:—1829, 99 vessels of 20,722 tons; 1830, 84 of 17,250 tons; 1831, 82 of 16,526 tons; 1832, 77 of 14,470 tons; 1833, 91 of 17,222 tons; 1834, 91 of 19,804 tons; 1835, 85 of 20,378 tons; 1836, 86 of 20,631 tons; 1837, from January 1 to April 30, 34 of 7,941 tons. The shipping thus engaged in carrying on the foreign trade of Arica was principally that of Great Britain, France, and the United States, in the following proportions:—1829—France, 21 vessels, 6,580 tonnage; England, 31 vessels, 5,712 tonnage; United States, 13 vessels, 3,638 tonnage. 1830—France, 26 vessels, 7,109 tonnage; England, 25 vessels, 4,338 tonnage; United States, 8 vessels, 2,368 tonnage. 1831—France, 25 vessels, 6,253 tonnage; England, 25 vessels, 4,955 tonnage; United States, 15 vessels, 2,865 tonnage. 1832—England, 29 vessels, 4,576 tonnage; France, 13 vessels, 3,218 tonnage; United States, 12 vessels, 2,897 tonnage. 1833—England, 28 vessels, 5,580 tonnage; France, 19 vessels, 4,563 tonnage; United States, 13 vessels, 2,869 tonnage. 1834—England, 35 vessels, 7,443 tonnage; United States, 15 vessels, 4,496 tonnage; France, 12 vessels, 3,002 tonnage. 1835—England, 27 vessels, 6,836 tonnage; France, 20 vessels, 5,216 tonnage; United States, 9 vessels, 2,868 tonnage. 1836—England, 38 vessels, 8,039 tonnage; United States, 11 vessels, 4,936 tonnage; France, 15 vessels, 4,093 tonnage. Jan. 1 to April 30, 1837:—England, 16 vessels, 3,712 tonnage; France, 10 vessels, 2,628 tonnage; United States, 1 vessel, 231 tonnage.

There are no indications in the customhouse entries from which the values of imports and exports may be gathered. All the merchandise entered at Arica is forwarded to Tacna; that exported is derived from Tacna or some other points of Southern Peru or Bolivia. Tacna, about 35 miles distant from Arica, is the market from whence a part of Lower Peru and that part of Bolivia lying on the Peruvian frontier are supplied. Thus Arica is a port of entrepot and transit only. It is at Tacna that all the business is transacted, and there the heads of commercial houses reside. The erection of Arica into a port of entrepot on the 20th of April, 1836, was one of the first consequences of the revolution by which Southern Peru was separated from North Peru. Some months later this entrepot was declared in common to Lower Peru and Bolivia. The 18th of February, 1839, it again became purely Peruvian. At the end of 1838, that is, when under the *régime* of common right with Bolivia, the foreign importations were approximatively valued at \$1,800,000. The exports were loosely rated at several millions. The proportion in which foreign products contributed to the consumption of the Peru-Bolivian Confederation was reckoned at 2-3ds for English commodities, 1-6th French, and 1-6th for those of the United States, Germany, Switzerland, Italy and Spain together. The English cotton prints have a large sale and are in general use, but some of the finer descriptions and patterns of French printed cambrics, although not in any considerable quantity, get placed, being about

the only article of cottons supplied in those markets from France. They are about 50 per cent higher in price than English printed cambrics of the same sort, and, therefore, only suited for the richer class of consumers. Muslins are of large consumption, but the white only are now in demand; they are furnished chiefly from England and Switzerland. From England also, almost exclusively, the markets of Arica and Tacna are supplied with men and women's white and colored stockings, cambric, counterpanes, florentines, gauze, madapolams of all qualities, pocket-handkerchiefs of all kinds and colors, nankeens white and yellow, percales white and dyed, printed muslin and other shawls, gray calicoes called *tocuyos*, cotton velvets called *panas*, cotton thread in balls, &c.

In silk goods France supplies stockings, gros de Naples plain, figured and watered or waved, mantillas, handkerchiefs, (*foulards*) in piece, ribands and gauzes, satins plain, strong and light, figured satins, serges black and broad, velvets and stuffs for vests, &c. Also sewing silks and gloves assorted. From China are brought levantines, crape and other shawls, black and colored satins, black serge, sewing silk, &c. From England, Germany, Spain and Switzerland also silk stockings, cravats, handkerchiefs, stuffs for vests, ribands of all sorts, taffetas, serge and sewing silks are imported. In woollen cloths the English make is preferred by the Peruvians as being of better finish, better pressed, lighter and cheaper than French or other foreign woollens. French merinos, however, were without competition, but being high priced they were of limited consumption, only among the classes in easy circumstances. The more favorite colors some time ago were white, blue, pearl gray, soft yellow, red and rose. All other sorts of woollen tissues are almost exclusively derived from England, such as Cashmere shawls printed, stockings, *bayetas* or coarse flannels, imitation carpeting, &c. Linen cloths are chiefly supplied from England and the Hanse towns. Iron unworked is furnished from England, Spain, and Sweden; paper from Spain, France and Italy; perfumery from France; earthenware from England and France; cutlery, English and German; glassware, a good deal from Germany. In assorting cargoes for the Peru-Bolivian markets care should be taken that the quantities of each article should not be too large.

The exports from Arica are composed for the most part of Bolivian products. Those of Peru are little else than saltpetre and cotton. The saltpetre is shipped at Iquique and Pisagua, the first distant about 112 miles from Arica, the other 55. It forms a part always of the return cargoes for Europe. The contraband trade in European goods was formerly extremely active on these two points, and it was for its repression that the obligation was imposed on all vessels going there to load, to unship and leave at Arica all the merchandise subject to duty which they might have on board. The cotton of the valleys of Sama and Lluta is of good quality; and particularly since a clearing machine or saw-gin has been established at Tacna by a British merchant, Peruvian cottons have become more valuable, and their cultivation has been considerably extended. A speculation was tried once by some parties of shipping silver ore at Iquique, the produce of the province of Tarapaca, but the results were not encouraging and the speculation was abandoned. The principal Bolivian products exported from Arica are quinquina (jesuits' bark,) copper, bismuth and wool. The quinquina of the *yungas* of La Paz and of the provinces of Majos and Apolobamba is the most esteemed of all America, and large quantities of

it are exported for Europe. The free shipment was suspended in January, 1838, in favor of the monopoly of a Bolivian company, but was re-established by decree the twentieth of March, 1839, by which this precious bark has again become a valuable means of return and exchange for foreign commerce. In respect of copper, the working of the mines of Corocoro, in the department of La Paz, so rich from the quality and quantity of their mineral which yields from eighty to ninety per cent of pure metal, has been pursued of late years with great activity, and the produce in consequence has been rapidly augmented. At the close of 1832 the rough ore was selling in Arica at eight dollars the quintal; but this was not properly a fixed price, as at that time there were few speculators in the article. So far back as 1836 a quantity equal to 3,161½ quintals was despatched to this country, but more by way of trial than speculation. Oruro furnishes bismuth of a dull appearance, and Guanani a bright bismuth, which, at the commencement of 1839, was selling at Arica at ten to eleven dollars the quintal for the first, and from twelve to thirteen for the second of these sorts. In 1836 the export amounted to 3,280 quintals. The environs of Puno, Oruro, and La Paz, and generally all the table-land of the Andes, produce wools of a fair description, and which might be readily improved, if more attention was paid to the breed and amelioration of the animal races. In 1836 the export to this country was 2,682 quintals. Besides these articles Arica exports about 2,500 dozens of Chincilla skins, some vicuna or vigonia skins with the soft down on, some ox and marine wolf skins, and a small quantity of the coffee of the yungas.

From 1825 to 1836 the duties levied in the port of Arica upon exports and imports produced as follows:—

	Dollars.		Dollars.
1825 . . .	188,663	1831 . . .	141,110
1826 . . .	294,730	1832 . . .	191,141
1827 . . .	301,106	1833 . . .	149,381
1828 . . .	327,182	1834 . . .	152,295
1829 . . .	346,503	1835 . . .	120,000
1830 . . .	177,300	1836, 11th July } to Dec. 31 }	70,789

The eleventh of July was the period when the port was rendered common, and the receipts divided with Bolivia. The duties on shipping at Arica are thus fixed. Every vessel loading or discharging in the port pays:—

Tonnage rate, per ton 2 reals

Verification, visit, &c. . . . 10 dollars per vessel.

Ships which enter to repair damages may discharge cargo without payment of tonnage rate, unless the whole or part of the cargo be sold or placed in bond after the departure of the vessel. The whalers and vessels engaged in the sea-wolf fishery are not liable to more than the verification tax of ten dollars, and may land a portion of the produce of their fishery to the value of 200 dollars, in order to defray the expenses of stay and re-victualling. Should the quantity landed exceed this amount, the tonnage duty becomes exigible. Another duty called the quay duty, is also payable thus: Upon rough ore, per box, one dollar; upon all other merchandise exported and imported, one real per bale or package.

ART. XI.—THE CURRENCY.

METHOD FOR CORRECTING THE CURRENCY WITHOUT THE AID OF A UNITED STATES BANK.

"Aurum per medias ire satellites
Et perrumpere amat saxa potentius
Ictu fulmineo."

THE great desideratum in the present state of the currency, is solvency, system, and regularity. To obtain this, it has been asserted that a United States Bank is necessary, and it seems that this remedy has been suggested either in ignorance or with a design of blinding the people, by thus leading their attention from the real defects of the present banking system. They would make them believe that any evil is to be counteracted by inducing a still greater one.

But since the final veto of a national bank, the people have fortunately struck upon this simple expedient—that the only true regulator of the currency is, *never to receive or pay bank bills except at their specie value.** This is the principle of the excellent Scotch banking system which is carried on by unincorporated companies, and it is one which, in this country, would *compel* the banks to a more careful and sound management.

In the present state of affairs, when banks that have made large dividends suspend specie payments, they do nothing to alleviate, but on the contrary break down their debtors, and continue issuing their notes at par value, which they buy up by agents at a discount, and thus continue to *profit* while the people *lose* by their suspension. It is evidently gambling on a large scale. Paper money, it is also asserted, is a means of creating capital and of saving labor. If the labor performed by bankers in order to preserve the credit of their paper had been bestowed upon the digging of the ore and coining gold and silver, we should have now a sufficient amount of a real, in the place of the present imaginary, exchanging medium, which is nothing but the representation of a quantity of goods in the country under bond and mortgage. This is the only benefit of banks,—they act as stimulus for production. But this advantage can only safely exist when they are carefully managed upon the Scotch, or some analogous principle, which now enjoys a decided preference throughout all European countries. Where hard money is used, there is this serious *disadvantage*—enterprise is frequently checked by all want of accommodation, since capitalists give their money only on the surest security, or to the several governments for state loans, whose credit is sure. This disadvantage is increased by the confused state of the laws concerning mortgages in those several states, with the exception of Prussia. The example of these countries cannot be recommended, therefore, without modification, and we will endeavor to show how the currency and banking of this country may be amended, purified, and put on a uniform basis.

Banking in Scotland is carried on entirely by unincorporated companies. Each member of which is responsible in his whole personal and real estate for all the debts contracted by the company, consequently for the whole amount of paper issued. In England, private banking is conducted upon

* The merchants of Macon, Ga., have put this simple expedient in practice, and they will succeed, and so will all others who follow their example.

a similar system, the members enjoying no peculiar privileges.* In countries where this plan is adopted, self-interest prevents an over-issue. If a similar plan were followed in this country with respect to banks, the same result would follow. They would be more safe and sound for the people, but less convenient for the members. To these should be added the condition of emitting no small bills, which do not exist in Scotland. In proportion as the responsibility of the bankers is increased and the denomination of the bills is raised, the system becomes less dangerous. No legislative enactments can afford an adequate remedy for the evils resulting from incorporated paper-money banks; they cannot, surely, be sustained if the people will not take their notes for any thing but specie. "The English committee on bullion" for 1811, as well as some of the best statesmen of England, as Lord King, Mr. Huskisson, Lord Liverpool, Mr. Grant, Duke of Wellington, &c. agree that neither the convertibility of paper to specie, nor the prohibition of small notes, alone can act as a sufficient check against over-issue. The personal responsibility above mentioned must be superadded. But all these brought into action are not sufficient. The oft-repeated assertion, "that a bank must regulate its issues by the public demands, is futile, "because experience shows that the demand for speculation can only be limited by want of means." The great problem with respect to paper currency, is to discover the check whereby the evil we wish to avoid may be averted; the principle should be *preventive* rather than *corrective*. To be preventive the check must exist in the nature of the banks themselves, and must operate equally on the whole system without exception. Such a system would approximate nearest to the Scotch, uniform in all the states throughout the Union, and without the interference of a privileged United States Bank, which by its monopoly would continually disturb the natural laws of currency. Neither would it be politically dangerous, for we have the example of the Rothschilds, famous throughout Europe, whose influence is so widely extended. They are not obliged to solicit the favor of legislators, or to make use of bribery, or of any other unjust means to accomplish their ends, for they stand on their own responsibility, and they neither have nor do they want a charter, and consequently can make their arrangements for any future time that may be convenient. Moreover, they, like all other capitalists, are desirous of order and regularity, and consequently in favor of peace.

For the benefit of the poor and laboring classes, and in order to keep constantly and securely employed their little earnings, savings banks are necessary, and their funds should be invested in the most secure manner, on bond and mortgage, and real estate, for fair per cents. Thus the interests of the rich and poor in regard to banking can be reconciled. The poor would be much more happy with a more steady currency, "as the wages of common labor adapt themselves more slowly to the changes which happen in the value of money, than the price of any other species of commodity." Moreover, the bills of broken banks are more apt to get into the hands of these unhappy people, owing to their ignorance of the value of paper and the condition of banks, and owing, also, to the fact that many heartless and cunning employers, who belong to the better educated class, who *have* the means of knowing these things, pay their poor laborers in the money of these banks, which they know beforehand are worth just

* Of course this remark does not extend to the Bank of England, which, as a regulator of the currency, is not thought effective even by the government itself.

nothing at all. Justice is in fact perverted by the present banking system. The morality of the people, which is worth more than gold, is endangered, by the temptation of spending their earnings immediately, so long as this money, which seems to have no permanent value, is thus thrust into the hands of the poor laborers.

There is this difficulty in the way of a reformation ; all stockholders, whatever may be the amount of their stock, receive from their present investments greater profits than they would do under a safer system, and without risking the remainder of their property. They would therefore prefer the old system until compelled by the people to adopt a new one. The crisis will soon arrive when all paper money will be refused except at the specie value, and the people will unite in demanding a nearer approximation to the specie standard. Without a United States Bank, and by means of a union of the principal banks of the several states, the exchange, like any other profitable business, would regulate itself by the competition between capitalists, as it has been between the different states of Europe without a Bank of Europe.

The two grand requisites in demand by the people are—1st. A general circulating medium, and consequently a regulator of the currency. 2d. A regulator of the exchanges between the states. Now let us consider whether these can be satisfied, and in what manner. We have already shown that the first can be attained, and it only remains to examine the second. Two entirely different significations can be assigned to that demand—either it can mean that a paper money of equal value throughout all the states, and one which would be a medium of exchange, is required, or, that a bank and its paper shall make the *exchanges* between the states *equal*. The first of these significations has already been explained, and it remains to prove the latter an impossibility. That it is so is evident from the laws of commerce, and for such an end no bank can be constructed. The whole object of commerce is to exchange the surplus produce of the different places, which is done in a great degree on credit ; consequently, from time to time, payments become due, and if the place which happens to be in the other's debt, has sent more goods to the place which it owes, they would naturally wish to pay with those articles rather than with money, whose cost of transportation they wish to avoid. Consequently notes will be sought for the purpose ; and the more one owes the other, the more those notes will be in demand, which, consequently, will rise in value, until the premium is equal to the cost of transportation of specie. But at the place which owes the less, and which has more demands upon the other, their notes or drafts are more plenty, consequently the demand and price for them is proportionately lower per exchange. If Cincinnati should purchase more manufactured goods of New York than it sends raw material, the demand for notes on New York would be great in Cincinnati, and a premium could be paid for them ; when New York would have a greater abundance of notes on Cincinnati, and they would be comparatively low in the latter place. Now, what is true of these places is true of the whole country. Thus we see the scale of prices constantly varying ; and every one knows that these vary according to the laws of demand and supply, and it would be absurd to suppose that they could be equalized by any bank. A union of the principal banks of the states could *check* the present unnatural difference in the exchanges, which arises from the variation in the *medium* of exchange. It is just the same

difference as would result from a variation in the standard of measurement. Hence it must be made up *extra*, which is a kind of insurance premium for the probability that the paper is not good. Now a paper money which would be distributed by a union such as we have already mentioned, of high reputation, and being much in demand, would compel all other banks to a safer management, or to break. This shows also that the United States Bank could not be a regulator of the exchanges between our states and Europe, nor could it be accomplished by the use of the thirty million annual income of the United States, since merchants of New York, who employ that amount, do not affect the exchange.

Now since a United States Bank is not necessary as a regulator, it is evident that the § 18 of sect. 8, art. I. of the constitution cannot be understood to be in favor of a bank. If we observe the operations of the bank party during the last election, we can see that the question with them was rather how government might make paper money, than how the rights and property of its citizens should be protected. Their object is evidently to increase their own property by the use of the public money. And a United States Bank would lend its influence and favor to its votaries, and would consequently injure all fair competition, which is the basis of all sound commerce, and contrary to the principles of republican institutions. Such an institution is neither necessary for collecting the public revenues, since that can be done by a number of persons in each seaport, who ought all together to give security to the probable amount of revenue, and their accounts should be strictly scrutinized by congress. The great fear of a union of purse and sword in this case would be useless, for the money is just as much the property of the different individuals when it is in the banks as when it is in any other secure place ; and there is just as much a union of purse and sword when government money is in the banks as when in the treasury, and if the bank should fail, according to fashion, surely government would no longer have control over it. The abundant issue of paper having a tendency to raise the price of goods in this country, the latter would consequently be imported, and sold at these high prices ; and specie would be demanded for the paper, in order to be sent out of the country : and this would make a constant draft on the banks ; and then they would be compelled to suspend, or to break. By these bankruptcies foreign countries lose a great amount. By the failure of the United States Bank, Europe has lost about twelve millions, and at least thirty millions in commerce with the United States, which will never be paid. In this affair, Mr. Biddle has shown his patriotism ; for he has duped England out of this sum of money which is now in this country, and we are surprised that he has not claimed a civic crown.

Such proceedings are much more injurious to this country, than to lose outright that whole sum of money ; for of all things Europeans demand safety and security in all their business engagements. If this country would only fulfil to the letter all her engagements with Europe, she might obtain any amount of money for smaller per cents ; since now we have to pay, in the higher per cents, what is in fact an insurance for the liability of failure. Those countries of Europe which fulfil punctually all their engagements, can obtain all the money they want at four or five per cent. The injuries are not confined to banks and actual loss of money, but they affect the tariff, which when intended for a permanent protection, the standard of value should be as stable as possible. This desideratum has been

attained by some of the German states, since they use entirely specie, or a small proportion of paper, as their currency. Paper money could be recommended only upon condition, when the government is compelled to make a loan ; as for example, instead of issuing the late loan of twelve millions from a bank, to which government must pay interest, it would be for the interest of all individual citizens that the government itself should issue that amount : in this instance the annual interest amounts, at six per cent, to \$720,000. Now the question is, whether, after a great part of the public lands shall be given over to the states, they must be taxed to pay this amount, or whether they could not raise it without taxes, if the government issued the amount of paper, which would be done without any charge to the people ?

The most important consideration with respect to a national paper money, would be its constitutionality. So much has been said in discussions on this subject, since the adoption of the constitution, that it would be difficult to bring forward any thing new. These discussions have been held concerning a bank of issue and *discount*, which, according to the constitution, art. I. sect. 8, it is very doubtful whether Congress has a right to create. But cannot a sound currency be established without the creation of such a bank, and agreeable to the constitution ?

In a country like this, where the acquisition of wealth is the prime object of the majority of the people, and where, notwithstanding, there are but few individuals who possess sufficient to check or counteract the evil influence of a gigantic bank, money power is the greatest and most difficult of all to guard against, such a power, emanating from a United States Bank, would be the greatest power in the country, and would still have no constitutional check, and would therefore be greatly abused. This danger is denied by few ; but a national paper money, under existing circumstances, has been so much demanded, that the danger is entirely overlooked by the friends of a national bank. Now if states will charter banks, and at the same time will not unite on any uniform standard of value, then the question is, whether it is necessary and possible for the general government to use the power granted to it in the constitution ; which is as follows—viz, “ The Congress shall have power to coin money, *regulate the value thereof*,” &c. This gives to Congress the *whole* power of regulating the standard of value of money ; and this as well when under the form of paper as of metallic money ; for it is well known that the quantity of paper money in circulation abroad, affects the value of metallic money at home. After the establishment of banks by any one else, Congress would not have this power. Consequently this power of Congress is already annihilated, and the article above mentioned can mean no more than to regulate the standard, since the value of gold and silver is only regulated by the demand and supply in the market of the whole world ; and to expect that Congress would regulate this, would be to expect an impossibility.

It is still more evident, that it was the intention of the framers of the constitution that Congress alone should have the sole power, from art. I. sect. 10, where it is directly denied to the states in these words :—“ No state shall coin money, emit bills of credit, or make any thing but gold and silver a tender in payment of debts.” Consequently, either there shall be no paper money at all, or it shall be under the sole control of Congress, or Congress shall be confined to the letter of the article of the constitu-

tion, and only possess the power of coining and regulating the standard thereof, and have nothing to do with paper. This last opinion appears to be true, since the currency and the value of it is governed by the laws of exchange throughout the world. No government can regulate the currency in any other way than to fix a standard; and this can be best done with specie. If then, according to this interpretation, Congress has constitutionally no control over paper; and since, as shown above, the *states* have no control over, nor any right to manufacture it, we must either be without paper, or it must be manufactured by the citizens. For it is a known and settled principle founded on philosophy, that no one can transfer to another a right which he does not himself possess. "Nemo plus juris in alium transferre potest quam quod ipse habet." "Since no state can coin money, or emit bills of credit, (under which paper money is included,) can they make any thing but gold and silver a tender in payment of debts?" No state has itself a right to make money, no matter whether gold, silver, or any other material, and therefore it cannot transfer this right to banks by charter; wherefore these charters are wholly unconstitutional. Congress only has the right, and that is the only body which can confer it. So in Europe, continental governments possess this power alone, and private citizens cannot have it.

Therefore, Congress has the power to prescribe how unincorporate banking companies must act, in order to keep their money at par with specie, by virtue of its power to regulate commerce; and as a means of doing this, something like the Scotch banking system must be introduced. To produce this, first, the members of the company must make it their whole business; and second, this principle must prevail, that "one is bound for all and all for one"—or that each member of the banking companies ought *at least* to be responsible for the common debts of the bank, in proportion to his share. Then banking would become a profession, and care would be taken in respect to the members they admitted, and competition would be created, which would avoid abuse of this great money power, and the people would enjoy a sound currency. Upon the supposition however that it be correct for Congress to direct the issue of paper, and that it is necessary, the following plan for the establishment of a national paper currency might perhaps be practicable.

Let a certain number of men of the highest respectability, who are entirely independent of, and shall have no interest in, the quantity of paper issued, be appointed to issue a certain amount of paper fixed by law, depending for its basis upon the credit of the government, and a fund derived from part of the proceeds of the public lands, by which, if necessary, it may be redeemed. These persons are to do no discounting—merely to make the issue, and when this is done, they are to be dismissed. In order to avoid the danger of an *over-issue*, the amount should be decreed by Congress, always carefully confining its issues below its capabilities of redeeming, at all times, as well in the urgent necessities of war, as in a state of peace and prosperity. The reputation of a national paper will depend upon the caution never to over-issue, and the promptitude of redeeming. Although the voice of speculators continually demands an abundant issue, yet Congress has in justice to restrict the issue within such limits as thereby to protect its own reputation against dishonor and distrust, and individual property and contracts against unjust fluctuations of value. It must act on the above-mentioned principle, that no one can honestly

transfer to another by paper, the power of purchasing, which he himself does not possess. The amount of loans ever necessary, even after the distribution of the public lands, ought hardly ever to exceed 25,000,000 : and that amount of paper money, together with about 100,000,000 of specie, has been found sufficient for the kingdom of Prussia, with about the same population as the United States, in its commerce with the whole Germanic Union ; which, as may be seen in the " Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on import duties," operates very extensively in competition even with England in foreign markets. By carefully limiting beforehand, by law, the amount within the means of ever-ready redemption, we shall solve that great problem with respect to a paper currency, which is, to discover that check whereby that evil which we wish to avoid may be arrested, before it takes place.

A part of the proceeds of the public lands would have formed an ever-ready fund for redemption, sustained moreover by the pledged credit of the United States ; and since no expansion or contraction of paper could exist, this would stand so safe and stable in value, that only in the most extreme cases of danger to the country a redemption would be required ; and such cases are rare in the United States, which are so seldom threatened with war. The redemption could always be effected through the regular collectors and other officers employed under the treasury department. Taxes and duties of course could be paid in this paper, as well as in the notes of those banks which pay specie. Those who are appointed for making the issue should make a full register of it, revised by Congress, and printed in the newspapers, which should specify the number of bills of each denomination issued, each bill of each denomination being numbered in order, 1, 2, 3, &c., so that by this means an over-issue could be discovered by any one holding any of the bills of the over-issue. To avoid the danger of their issuing duplicates, all bills issued should be countersigned by the Secretary of the Treasury.

These men would not form a bank, since their whole business is only to make the issue—as no discounting would be done by any government officers. By keeping the issuing and discounting business entirely separate, we avoid the danger of continual expansions and contractions, which, as we know by the unhappy experience of late years, has proved very disastrous to all solid business, to the just fulfilment of contracts, and to those persons who live on fixed salaries.

The danger of over-issue is best avoided by making a gradual issue. This paper, together with that issued by a union of banks, would be the much desired medium of exchange throughout the whole United States.*

* The writer of this article, Professor *Tellkamp*, is entirely disinterested in his views, and has no wish to come within the sphere of political contention ; he is simply desirous of contributing towards the full discussion of a few of the most important questions regarding the currency, now agitated in this country ; and although differing with him on some points, we cheerfully submit his views to the candid consideration of our readers. We would take this occasion to repeat, what we have before remarked, that the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine* will ever be open to the free discussion of the great topics that interest the mercantile community.—EDITOR *MAGAZINE*.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

RECENT DECISIONS IN THE UNITED STATES COURTS.*

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine :

It being of importance to the public to know how far the remedy under a creditor's bill can be claimed in the United States Courts, the following abstract of an opinion delivered in the Circuit Court of this District on that point in 1837, is offered for insertion in your Magazine :

REMEDY UNDER A CREDITOR'S BILL.

United States Circuit Court.—In Equity.—Lamson vs. Mix and three others.—A judgment was recovered in the circuit court at law in favor of the complainant, against three of the defendants. A bill was subsequently filed on the equity side of the court, alleging the inability of the three defendants to pay the judgment, and averring that H., the other defendant, owed two of his co-defendants the amount of a judgment recovered against him by them in the superior court of this state, and praying that he might be enjoined from paying that money to them and be decreed to pay it to the complainant, and also praying a like injunction and appropriation as to all their choses in action, &c.

The proposition to have the benefit of that judgment being the point upon which the decision turned, and that judgment being the only means shown by the bill to be possessed by the defendants for which the interference of the court could be required, the other averments and interrogatories are omitted. Application was made upon the bill to the district judge for an injunction, &c.

BETTS, District Judge—The Chancellor of this state having refused to entertain a creditor's bill on the basis of a judgment recovered in the United States courts, (*Tarbell vs. Griggs*, 3 Paige, 207,) this bill is filed to obtain here the relief administered in the state court in like cases.

The right of the complainant to this relief is sought to be maintained—

1st. Because it is supplied by a statute of the state, and

2d. Upon general principles of equity jurisprudence.

1st. Whether the state act (2 R. S. 173, 174, § 38, 39,) is to be regarded as declaring the competency of the court to grant a *remedy* in the case, and thus affirming or enlarging its course of practice, or whether it is understood as recognising the principle and furnishing thus a rule of decision, it can in neither case give this court an authorization to act out of its accustomed sphere. The practice of the United States courts in equity is not drawn from nor regulated by that of the states. (7 Cranch, 550.) It is governed by their own specific rules, and is made conformable to that of the high court of chancery of England. (3 Wheat. 221—6 Peters, 658—*ibid.* 659—7 Peters, 274.) This court accordingly acquires no authority to grant the remedy prayed for in this case from its being conferred by the local law or the state tribunals, (10 Wheat. 24,) unless it be made to appear that it is a known course of the English chancery, or is expressly prescribed in the stated rules of the supreme court or this court.

The state laws furnish the rule of decision in the courts of the United States in cases at common law, (2 Laws U. S. 70, § 34,) but the equity jurisdiction of those courts is one and the same in every state, and is in no respect dependent upon the local law. (3 Wheat. 221—2—4 Wheat. 108—6 Peters, 658—7 Peters, 274.) It is in conformity with the rules of jurisprudence administered in the court of chancery in England. (3 Story on Const. 506, 507.) If therefore the state act is to be regarded as introducing new matter within the scope of chancery jurisdiction, and as conferring powers beyond those recog-

* Reported expressly for the Merchants' Magazine.

nised by the general principles of equity jurisprudence, clearly such legislation supplies no rule of decision to this court.

2d. But it is insisted that *Hadden vs. Spader* (20 Johns. R. 554,) is decisive of the point of jurisdiction upon general principles, and establishes the doctrine that chancery will aid an execution creditor by seizing credits and effects of his debtor not liable to execution, and appropriating them in satisfaction of the judgment.

This decision has been subjected to much discussion and question in the courts of the state, (1 Hopk. R. 59—3 Wend. 360,) and although the judge who pronounced the opinion of the court of errors, argued in support of the broadest authority of chancery in this behalf, it is at least doubtful whether the case actually presented demanded the suggestions which were advanced, or can give them the effect of an adjudication. Most certainly the decision of the court of errors applied to the pleadings between the parties may be sustainable upon principles entirely distinguishable from the conclusions to which Judge Woodworth's argument is directed.

Looking at the naked case as stated in the pleadings, (5 Johns. Cha. 280—20 Johns. R. 554,) it is one in which the complainant alleges that his judgment debtor had assigned goods to a large amount to the defendant without adequate consideration, and thereby hindered or defeated execution against them, and the power of the court is invoked to submit such goods and chattels to the operation of the execution. It may be admitted that such a case would well warrant the decree rendered in the cause, whether the assignment was avoided because fraudulent as against creditors, or as interposing an impediment to the running and operation of an execution at law as against tangible property which ought to be subject to it. (4 Johns. Chan. 452—ibid. 687—1 Hopk. R. 59—1 Paine, 531.—2 Mason, 252—4 Cowen, 682.) These cases rest upon the familiar and well-established jurisdiction of the English chancery in that behalf.

Judge Woodworth holds the party entitled to relief upon a wider equity than this:—That he may have the aid of chancery to transfer to him all rights and credits appertaining to his debtor: As the greater remedy will contain the less, he of course can have visible and tangible property secured him as a consequence of his right to every description of interest which his debtor might claim. This wide, sweeping doctrine is pronounced, by the court of chancery of the state, extra-judicial, and of course without authority over other tribunals, and that court denies that the hypothesis of the learned judge is consonant to the principles of equity jurisprudence. (1 Hopk. R. 59.)

The court of errors in a subsequent case very significantly intimates that the views of Judge Woodworth, without the sanction of an act of the legislature, could not be successfully maintained as a rule of chancery jurisdiction. (3 Wend. 360.) Let it then be admitted that a direct adjudication of the court of errors on the point of law would become a rule of decision in this court equally as in the courts of the state, I think it manifest that there is no such authority in the case referred to, and that notwithstanding the strong language used in pronouncing the opinion in that case, the question is open to examination upon the general principles of chancery law, whether a judgment creditor can in this court compel the application of debts and choses in action belonging to his debtor to the satisfaction of such judgment. This question is to be determined by the established and recognised principles of the English law in this behalf; both the United States and the state courts adopting that as their common standard.

The authority of the English decisions ceases in the state court if made after April, 1775. (20 Johns. 554.) Probably the process act, (2 Laws U. S. 299, § 2,) may interpose an equivalent limitation in the United States courts after 1792. (10 Wheat. 473.)

It seems conceded by the court of errors in *Hadden vs. Spader*, that since 1790, the rule prevailing in England is adverse to the doctrines advanced in that case, and if this court administers the law as it existed in 1792, it would seem to follow that the enun-

ciation of a new course of decision in 1790 might supersede here equally as in England the force of any anterior rules. That the English chancery does not now administer the relief sanctioned by that case is unquestionable. (2 Kent, 443—4 *ibid.* 430.) But I am inclined to the opinion that the cases clearly show that the new decisions proceed upon the assumption that the law was always in that country as then declared, and that they are not regarded as establishing any new rule. (9 Vesey, 180—10 Vesey, 368—7 Price's Exch. R. 274.)

After the critical and careful review of the cases by Judge Woodworth in support of his opinion, by Chancellor Sanford, (1 Hopk. 59,) and the manifest approval of his reasoning by other judges who have adverted to the subject, (Walworth, Cir. J., 9 Cowen 724—Marcy, J., 3 Wend. 360—Vice-chancellor McCoun, 1835, *Craig vs. Hone*,) it is unnecessary for me to go further than to add, that on a careful perusal of the English cases supposed to sustain the doctrine advanced in the court of errors, (1 Vern. 399—1 P. Wms. 445—2 Atk. 477—*ibid.* 600—3 Atk. 352—356—Ambl. 79—2 Cox, 235—Ambl. 596,) every one of them in my judgment turns upon points of jurisdiction wholly independent of the principle put forth in *Hadden vs. Spader*—some ingredient of fraud, of trust, or impediment to the running of an execution, or necessity for discovery, supplying in each of them matter pertaining to the cognizance of chancery. The case of *Taylor vs. Jones*, (2 Atk. 600,) referred to by Judge Story as the strongest in support of the doctrine declared in *Hadden vs. Spader* was the case of a *fraudulent* settlement by a debtor on his own family. (1 Story's Equity, 362, note.) It is to be observed that the settlement was set aside in favor of general creditors, and that no peculiar equity on behalf of a judgment creditor is recognised by the court in that decision. Such also was the character of the case of *Stillman vs. Ashdom*, 2 Atk. 477, and the general question was decided by Lord Hardwicke adverse to the maintenance of such bills, though relief in that form may be yielded under peculiar equities, and, as in the last case, in furtherance of some special statute.

The present chancellor of this state was plainly of opinion that the jurisdiction of the court would not, without the aid of the statute, give an execution creditor relief against property not liable to execution, or prevent the judgment debtor collecting his own debts when application to the court was unsupported by any ingredient of fraud or injustice—(9 Cowen, 724.)

It seems to me, the very nature and object of bills of this character show that they must act within the sphere indicated. A judgment creditor has no claim because of the quality of his debt to the interference of chancery. All debts take like rank in equity, and the principles which will found a jurisdiction to enforce here payment of a judgment equally cover every other class of debts, and authorize its employment for their collection. This is the clear doctrine of the English decisions. (2 Atk. 477—*ibid.* 600—2 Cox, 235—Ambl. 596.) Creditors' bills, therefore, are not suits for the collection of debts, but emphatically *in aid* of the execution at law. The execution should do the office, and would perform it but for some occurrence which demands the interposition of chancery to give the execution its legitimate effect.

All the cases rest upon this doctrine. Chancery cannot be appealed to until the creditor has faithfully exhausted all his remedies at law, (1 Madd. 206,) and it may admit of question whether the relief should go further than to bring property *already under lien* by the judgment or execution in a state to be levied on and appropriated. (1 Paine, 531.) This necessity demonstrates the reason and limits of the jurisdiction—that it is to be called in when execution at law would have afforded the required remedy but for some wrongful act of the party defeating its operation. The argument that a creditor has not an adequate remedy at law where the debtor's property is not tangible, but consists in

choses in action or debts owing him, furnishes no cause for the interposition of chancery that did not always exist at common law.

The entire remedy ever allowed judgment creditors at law obtains now in this court; the sequestration of all visible property, and the right of imprisonment to coerce the production of property which an execution cannot reach. Chancery is not to be appealed to, to take original cognizance in the mere collection of debts, but as an auxiliary to courts of law, to help out process where it would supply every needful remedy if its course were not intercepted or defeated by some inequitable act of the party directly connected with its operation. The object of the present bill, which is to enjoin two of the defendants from collecting the judgment debt due them from the other, and probably further, to compel payment of that judgment to the complainant, cannot, in either aspect, prevail in this court. Injunction accordingly denied.

SELLING CARGO TO PAY FOR REPAIRS.

An important case, as to the right of a captain to sell cargo to meet repairs, has come up in the English court of chancery—having relation to the New York ship *Armadillo*.

In November, 1840, the plaintiff, Rayne, shipped certain goods of the value of about £700 on board the ship *Armadillo*, then lying at Newcastle, of which the defendant, W. A. Benedict, was the captain, and which he represented to belong to a firm of respectability at New York. The goods were the property of the plaintiff, and were consigned to his agents at New York, for the purpose of being sold for the plaintiff's benefit, and the bill of lading was delivered to the plaintiff, and sent by him to his agents at New York: these circumstances were, however, introduced into the bill by amendment. The vessel set sail in November, 1840, but in going out of the Tyne met with an accident, and put into South Shields for repairs. When the necessary repairs were completed, she again set sail, but towards the end of February the plaintiff learned that the vessel was alleged to have sprung a leak, and had put into Cowes harbor. The bill stated, that the firm at New York, to whom the ship was stated to belong, had become insolvent, and that the captain had no means of paying for the necessary repairs, and had threatened and intended to sell the cargo, or part of it, to raise money to pay for the repairs, and that he was landing part of the cargo at Cowes for the purpose of selling it. The bill prayed for an injunction to restrain the defendant from selling the goods; and the amended bill also asked a declaration, that the contract between the plaintiff and defendant was at an end, and that the goods ought to be returned to the plaintiff.

The plaintiff had obtained an *ex parte* injunction from the vice-chancellor, which his honor, upon the case being argued before him, dissolved. The plaintiff now moved before the lord chancellor, that the order of the vice-chancellor dissolving the injunction might be discharged.

Mr. Wakefield, Mr. G. Richards, and Mr. Keene, appeared for the plaintiff, and contended that the captain had no right to sell his cargo in order to repair his vessel, where the owners of the cargo were present, and claimed to have it returned to them; that the reason why a captain was invested with the power of selling part of his cargo in case of need, was not that he might repair his vessel for the benefit of the owners, but that he might be able to perform his contract for the benefit of the shippers of the goods, by delivering them at the place of their destination: but in this case the owners were desirous that the goods should be delivered up to them, and the contract ended.

Mr. Wigram and Mr. Hull, contra, insisted that the bill only stated that the plaintiff had shipped these goods, but did not state that they absolutely belonged to him; he might have been acting merely as agent for the house at New York: that the plaintiff had incurred a certain debt to the defendant for freight, which he had not offered to pay, nor had he exempted the captain from his agreement to deliver these goods at New

York. Mr. Wakefield replied. The following authorities were cited : *Wilson vs. Millar*, 2 Stark. 1—*Dobson vs. Wilson*, 3 Campb. 480. (See also *Abbott on Shipping*, part 4, ch. 4, and the cases there cited.)

THE LORD CHANCELLOR.—As I understood the facts of this case in the first instance, it was that of the owners of the goods shipping their goods on board a ship in the Tyne ; that the ship, meeting with an accident, was afterward repaired at Shields, and then proceeded on her voyage to New York, and having without any assignable cause become leaky, to the extent of making nine inches of water per hour, and going into the harbor of Cowes for repairs ; the owners of the goods hearing of this, and not having had the fact communicated to them by the captain, interfere and prohibit the captain from dealing with their goods, for the purpose of raising money to do these repairs ; and the injunction is, that the captain may be restrained from selling, hypothecating, or disposing of the cargo for the purpose of paying for the repairs at Cowes, necessary to enable the ship to proceed on her voyage. Under these circumstances, the plaintiff claiming his goods, and being in a situation to demand the return of those goods, would entitle him to the interposition of the court ; because, otherwise, any captain who had a rotten ship at his command, might get goods on board at any port in England, and then sailing to any other port in England, might sell those goods in order to repair his rotten ship, and leave no redress to the owners of the goods. And here it would appear, the owners of the ship were persons who, whatever their credit might have been when the ship sailed from New York, have ceased now to have any credit, and are not now forthcoming to meet any demand against them. But in order to establish that right, it would be incumbent on the plaintiff to show, in the first instance, that he was so far the owner of the goods, as to have a right to control the disposition of the goods ; and it would be right for him also to show, that, having such dominion over the goods, he had so dealt with the captain as to exonerate the captain from the liability to carry the goods to New York ; because, although it is perfectly true that the right of the captain to hypothecate the goods is said to be for the benefit of the goods, they being to be carried to the place of destination, the owner cannot come and say, You shall carry those goods to the place of destination, but you shall not deal with them in the way the law enables you to deal with them for the purpose of doing so. It appears to me, that the owner has not relieved the captain from carrying the goods to New York, but is just saying, you shall not use those means the law enables you to use, for the purpose of doing so. There has not been any proposition to reclaim the goods : if there had been, the question would then have remained as to the terms on which that should be done. Now, although the captain has a right to tranship, Mr. Wakefield says, he is not *bound* to tranship. He is bound to carry the goods to the place of destination : it is contract ; and if they are not carried to the place of destination, he or the owners are liable for not performing the part of the contract,—liable to the shipper by virtue of the contract, and liable to the consignee, the bill of lading being delivered to the consignee, by virtue of that bill of lading. If the owners of the goods are present at any place where the accident happens, I have no doubt they have a right, by settling with the captain—whether by paying freight or not, is not now the question—to say, You shall not sell my goods : but they have no right to say to the captain, You shall carry my goods to the place of destination, but you shall not hypothecate or sell part of the goods, for the purpose of enabling you to carry them there. Mr. Wakefield says, you may tranship, but that you shall not repair for the purpose of carrying the goods. The power the captain has over the goods is for the purpose, in case of certain contingencies happening, of enabling him to protect the cargo, and to carry his contract into effect. Now I apprehend, in this case, the plaintiff has failed on both grounds. He has not shown such an interest in these goods, as to entitle him to exercise dominion over them. Though he has had the opportunity

of making an affidavit, he has not shown any such interest in them, but he has stated that which is not inconsistent with the title being in the consignees altogether. It is quite obvious, it was a very important question in the case, considering what had taken place, which however he did not mention in his affidavit, namely, as to the bill of lading being sent forward. He does not state it, but it is stated in the answer, that the bill of lading is sent forward to the consignee: but the plaintiff is totally silent as to the bill of lading, or there being any consignment to anybody. If there had been a bill of lading, it might have been delivered to the captain, for him to give to any person whom he might select for the purpose of dealing with the goods, if the goods had been the goods of the plaintiff. It is possible they may be the goods of the plaintiff, and that they may be consigned to this house at New York merely for the purpose of sale; or it may be, that they are the property of the house at New York, and that the parties here have acted merely as the agents of the parties at New York. All that is disclosed upon the subject is from the answer, which states that there was a bill of lading, consigning these goods to be delivered to certain persons in New York, which the captain says he believes had been sent forward to those persons. Those persons, therefore, on the arrival of the ship at New York, will be entitled to demand the goods according to the bill of lading, and the captain will be liable to such persons, if he does not deliver them. There is, therefore, a failure, on the part of the plaintiff, in showing that he has a dominion over the goods for the purpose of interposing now, and saying, that the goods intended to go by your ship shall no longer perform that voyage, but that I demand again my property. He has no such right: he has not shown it to be his property: but if he had not been in that situation, he could only have done so upon relieving the captain from the liability to perform the voyage. He is so far from doing that, that he leaves him subject to that liability, and is not now offering to relieve him. He does not demand the goods. He says, I am willing to leave the goods in your hands; I only seek to prevent you from dealing with them in the way the law, without my interposition, if necessary, would enable you to do, so as to perform your voyage. That was the reason which made me ask, whether the injunction which the plaintiff asked, was to prevent the captain from prosecuting the voyage. It is quite obvious that was not the intention of the plaintiff, otherwise the plaintiff would have made that part of his demand. The only question then would be, whether any thing, and what, was due from the owner of the goods, in respect of that part of the voyage which had been performed; but the injunction, as prayed for, would leave the liability of the captain to perform the voyage untouched. It asks that he may be made liable to that contract, and yet not be at liberty to raise money which may be necessary for the purpose of putting the ship in that state, in which alone it would be able to perform the voyage to New York. I think, therefore, upon those two grounds, both necessary to be established in order to entitle the plaintiff to the injunction which he seeks, he cannot, under this state of circumstances, be entitled to the injunction he prays; and that the order of the vice-chancellor was correct, and must be confirmed; and that the motion must be refused with costs. It would be quite a different thing, if the plaintiff came here proving he was the owner of those goods, and seeking that the captain should not part with them. To be sure, a party who ships goods at Newcastle in November, has not made much progress towards the accomplishment of his views, who finds the goods at Cowes in April. But without giving any opinion upon a motion on a case differently shaped, I am quite clearly of opinion, he is not entitled to the injunction he now asks.

The plaintiff afterward amended his bill, stating that the goods shipped by him were his exclusive property, and were shipped by him for the purpose of being sold at New York on his own account. On the 4th of May, the plaintiff applied to the vice-chancellor for an injunction, which his honor refused; and the plaintiff then made a similar

application to the lord chancellor on the 7th of May, but his lordship said, that it did not appear that the plaintiff had relieved the defendant from the liabilities to which he would be subject, on his arrival at New York, under his bill of lading ; and that although it was a hard case upon the plaintiff, still he must refuse the application, with costs.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

STOCK TABLE.

Prices of Stocks (per \$100) at the New York Stock Exchange, on or near the first of each month during the year 1841.

[Prepared for the Merchants' Magazine, by Edwin Williams.]

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Ap'l.	May	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
BANKS.												
Merchants',.....	103	110	102	105	108	109	105	108½	108½	108	108	104
Mechanics',.....	110	95	89½	90	94	96½	96½	94	95	84½	78	68½
Manhattan,	91	91½	85	78	83	88	87	81	80	80	78	63½
America,.....	107	102	108	104	104	99	104	94
Phenix,.....	80	79	72	72	72½	99	95	86	80
Merchants' Exchange,	109	107	105	107	100
Leather Manufacturer's',	112	110	101	107	107½	105	103	103	100
Seventh Ward,.....	93	109	90	90	86
La Fayette,.....	90	90	80	71	75	69	46	45
Bk. of State of N. Y.,	95½	97	93	88	94	93	96½	97	90	80
Del. & Hud. Canal Co.,	84½	94	85	88	94	102½	104½	108	108	104	106½	105
Bank of Commerce,...	98	97½	94½	96	99	100	97	97	98	96	93	90
American Exchange,...	92	91½	78	80	80	86	96	87	86	75	75	67
Mech. Banking Asso.,	84½	78	69	71	76	75	75	72	67	56½	57	55
U. S. Bank, (of Penn.)	62½	41	18	17½	15½	20½	18½	16½	11	5½	4	3½
STATE STOCKS.												
New York, 5 per cts.	91	91	90	82	86½	87	85	85	86½	84	82½	80
Ohio,..... 6 "	96½	96½	92½	93	97	94½	94	94	92½	90	84
Indiana,.... 5 "	73	66½	53	53½	62	64	55	56	55½	48½	43	35
Illinois,..... 6 "	74	65	53½	51	57	66	56	53½	55	46½	40	34
RAILROAD COMPANIES.												
Mohawk & Hudson,...	69	66	55	56	64	71	67	66	58	59½	63	61
Utica & Schenectady,	126	126	126½	126½	132	132	133	133	135	135	134	133
Harlem,.....	38½	36½	29	28	29	29	25½	25	20½	16½	17½	16½
Stonington,.....	29	33	31	28½	31½	31	32	34	34	28	27	21½
Boston & Providence,	93	92½	92½	93½	94	96	95	94	94	95½	94	89
N. Jer. R. R. & T. L.,	75½	74½	70	70	75	83	80	78	77½	80	82	77

PRICES OF OTHER STOCKS.—DECEMBER 1, 1841.

BONDS.		FIRE INSURANCE COMPANIES.	
New York City Corp. Bonds, 6 per ct.	97	Bowery,.....	120
Kentucky Bonds,.....6 "	79½	East River,.....	50
BANKS.		Long Island,.....	90
Bank of New York,.....	115	Mutual,.....	90
Union,.....	103	Eagle,.....	93
City,.....	100	RAILROADS.	
North River,.....	75	Paterson,.....	52½
Greenwich,.....	70	Long Island,.....	52½
Butchers' and Drovers',.....	105	Boston & Worcester,.....	—
TRUST COMPANIES.		Utica & Syracuse,.....	105
Farmers' Loan & Trust Company,.....	32	Auburn & Syracuse,.....	80
Ohio Life & Trust Company,.....	63	Auburn & Rochester,.....	107

N. B.—Many other stocks are not regularly quoted.

WAREHOUSING.

Pope, in his "Yearly Journal of Trade," says that, antecedently to the present century a system of restraint and prohibition pervaded the administration of our maritime and revenue affairs, producing inconvenience to the merchant and detriment to commerce. Much of such inconvenience arose from the circumstance of the import duties being required to be paid on the landing of goods, amounting frequently to many thousand pounds. Such was more particularly the case during the late war, when the usual regularity of commercial transactions was much interrupted, and the merchant at times called upon, on the unexpected arrival of a ship, for a large advance of duties. This gave rise to a system of deferring payment, by allowing goods to be secured in warehouses, or other approved places, under the locks of the crown, and to be taken out as might suit the convenience of parties, the payment not being called for until the goods were so taken out. Hence, in 1803, the establishment of the general warehousing system. Numerous have been the claims as to the origin of this system. May it not, however, be traced to the primitive ages? for we read in Genesis, in the affecting history of Joseph and his brethren—"Let Pharaoh appoint officers over the land. And let them gather all the food and lay up corn, and let them keep the food in the cities, and that food shall be for *store*." Sir Robert Walpole, 1733, when he brought forward his excise scheme, attempted a measure of this sort on a very limited scale, but in consequence of severe opposition, abandoned it. Dean Tucker, too, in 1750, made a similar proposal without effect. The measure, however, was revived at the beginning of the present century, and the management of it confided to the late Mr. Frewin, then chairman of the Board of Customs—a post, by the bye, which he held for a very extended period, with no less honor to himself than of advantage to the country. The warehousing department has now become by far the most important in the whole circle of fiscal affairs. It is by no means an unusual thing for orders to be issued in a single day to a common locker for the delivery of goods, the duties alone on which amount to £10,000 or even £15,000—for several thousands is almost an every-day occurrence. The value of the merchandise deposited in warehouses under this system, at London, Liverpool, Bristol, Hull, and other ports, cannot be estimated for merely government duties, (supposing the stock on hand to be equal only to three years' consumption,) at less than fifty millions. Our ancestors would have been startled at the hint of the bare possibility of such an event; even some of our contemporaries may not, perhaps, be aware of the fact. Still such is the case. History shows nothing equal to this; no, not even "Solomon in all his glory." This vast machinery is, nevertheless, kept in regular and almost perpetual motion. The merchant gets his due supply, and the government the just proportion of duties.

COMMERCIAL VALUE OF OLD PAINTINGS.

It is stated in the London Tablet that the pictures belonging to the late Lady Stuart were recently sold at Christie's rooms. The bidding was spirited, the character of many of the paintings having attracted a numerous assemblage of the cognoscenti to the sale. Though the number in this collection did not exceed eighty, between £14,000 and £15,000 were realized. Two Cuyp's were knocked down for £2,625. A Landscape, by Rubens, with the Hunt of the Caledonia Boar, sold for £997 10s. A Claude, A Seaport, with a sun-set effect, a fine but not first-rate work of this master, fetched £640 10s. A Backhuyzen, A Harbor with a Rough Sea, a most exquisite production, £962. Two Vanderveldes, £1,795 10s. A Rubens, Melchizedec and Abraham, was bought at £598 10s.; and a Portrait of the Duchesse de Cruy at £273. A Pastoral Scene, by Morland, at £220 10s., etc.

PAPER MANUFACTURE.

The London Mercantile Journal gives a description of a new machine invented by a Mr. Rawson, destined to produce a mighty and complete revolution in the paper trade. From this statement, it appears that the paper, after being made and dried on the steam cylinder now in use, and wound on the reel, is then taken to the sizing machine, and passed under the roller which works in the size trough ; it then passes through metal rollers, which take off the superfluous quantity, and is wound on to a reel at the end. The operation of size parting is simply performed by winding the paper when thus sized on to another reel. This operation is extremely beneficial to the paper, and conducted with great rapidity, ten reams being size parted in as many minutes. The paper is then passed on to the drying machine, which consists of a series of open drums with fans inside, moving at various speeds, and fanning upon every part of the paper as it passes warm air which absorbs the moisture in the size, and leaves the gelatine firmly attached to the paper. A twelvemonth's continual working has demonstrated beyond all question the intrinsic worth of this invention, founded as it is upon the soundest principles, and carried out by the most beautiful and accurate machinery. Manufacturers, the most intelligent and influential in Great Britain, have thoroughly tested it, and have not scrupled to admit that the principle must shortly be universally adopted by those manufacturers of machine-made papers who are desirous to maintain their position in the market. The introduction of the paper machine by Fourdrinier produced changes of the most important character in the manufacture of paper, and had such machine been accompanied by the principle now carried forward by this invention, scarcely any thing would have remained to be desired in the manufacturing operations ; but it has always been felt that that machine was imperfect and incomplete, inasmuch as manufacturers were unable to carry forward the sizing and drying operations otherwise than by the most destructive and barbarous modes. There have been repeated attempts made to size by machines, but hitherto with little success ; where it is continued its advantage is rendered more than equivocal by the mode adopted in drying by heated cylinders. Engine sizing, although more general, is scarcely more satisfactory.

SPECULATION MANIA IN BELGIUM.

It appears from a new work on Belgium, by E. Tennant, that a few years since, the rage for joint-stock companies was as great among the phlegmatic Netherlanders as among the grasping and enterprising Yankees—and was attended with equally ruinous results. It is stated as a fact capable of demonstration, that between the years 1833 and 1838, 150 or 160 companies actually invested 350,000,000*f.* or about £15,000,000 in speculations for insurances, mines, machine making, public works, export associations, glass manufactories, sugar refineries, cotton and flax mills, printing, brewing,—in short, every imaginable undertaking that could be described in scrip. The mania originated with some similar undertakings projected by the King of Holland, but which, being prudently conducted, were moderately successful.

BROWN'S GOLD PENS.

This paragraph was written with one of Mr. Levi Brown's "ever-pointed premium gold pens," and a beautiful article it certainly is, possessing all the good qualities of the goose quill, without requiring the time and trouble of repair. It is said to combine too the qualities of incorrosibility and durability, which justly entitle it to the name of "ever-pointed." The body of the pen is of gold, highly polished, and the "points" are formed of a metal second in hardness to no substance heretofore discovered, having the indissolubility of diamond. This pen, we are assured, has been in use five years, without the least perceptible wear. It is manufactured by Mr. Brown, at No. 10 Fulton street, Brooklyn, L. I.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

EXPORTS OF FLOUR AND GRAIN FROM PHILADELPHIA.

A Table, showing the quantity of Flour, Grain, etc., exported from Philadelphia to Foreign Ports during the last ten years, (1831-1840,) derived from the Philadelphia Commercial List.

FLOUR.

YEAR.	WHEAT FLOUR.		RYE FLOUR.		CORN MEAL.	
	Barrels.	Value.	Barrels.	Value.	Barrels.	Value.
1831.....	259,785	\$1,452,656	8,433	\$31,248	45,432	\$153,529
1832.....	151,917	768,681	13,040	56,434	50,323	154,113
1833.....	132,622	727,568	27,939	100,507	51,903	172,746
1834.....	87,905	474,454	23,795	86,266	50,018	151,726
1835.....	96,098	561,931	21,038	91,525	50,869	193,488
1836.....	67,113	520,950	27,429	135,203	42,798	184,459
1837.....	33,680	306,383	17,276	96,913	63,803	291,912
1838.....	69,622	553,007	14,211	66,473	64,002	241,636
1839.....	191,380	1,273,484	24,527	116,161	73,800	292,915
1840.....	284,775	1,457,954	36,471	107,488	89,486	280,175

GRAIN.

YEAR.	WHEAT.		CORN.		OATS, ETC.
	Bushels.	Value.	Bushels.	Value.	Value.
1831.....	61,282	\$77,331	42,293	\$30,521	\$9,728
1832.....	2,258	2,429	48,859	33,379	3,906
1833.....			66,708	44,764	4,385
1834.....			31,526	25,704	17,373
1835.....	2,903	3,809	25,457	22,295	14,522
1836.....			19,117	18,075	2,940
1837.....			21,486	21,517	4,389
1838.....			17,087	14,280	2,537
1839.....	37,831	47,738	17,117	16,439	2,918
1840.....	280,047	311,208	76,749	43,618	22,527

TRADE OF THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

The Madrid Gazette lately gave a table of the imports and exports of the Philippine islands for the year 1840, amounting for the imports to 1,746,782 piastres; the exports to 4,489,144 piastres; 186 vessels cleared inwards, and 184 cleared outwards. This year, notwithstanding the Chinese blockade, there have been 34 clearances inwards, and 39 clearances outwards; and the warehousing lists of Manilla give 3,421,483 piastres imports, and 2,907,664 piastres exports. The salubrity of these islands, and their proximity to Japan, China, the East Indies, and New Holland, promise a considerable increase in their trade.

TRADE AND COMMERCE OF CUBA.

We publish the following statistics of the commerce of Cuba for the year 1840, as translated from the *Balanza General* for the London Journal of Commerce. Its details of the commerce, productions, and revenues of the island are very minute, and were prepared with great care by order of "Del Exmo Senor Conde De Villaneuva, Intendant of the Island." The following tables exhibit the general movement of the trade of the island for the past year, as compared with 1839:—

Importation and Exportation of the Island of Cuba for the year 1840, as compared with 1839, and the aggregate compared with 1838.

GENERAL MOVEMENT OF TRADE.	1839.	1840.	Increase.	Decrease.
<i>Importation.</i>				
Liquors,.....	\$2,390,569	\$1,999,068	\$391,501
Provisions,.....	1,885,403	1,839,783	45,650
Spices,.....	119,226	109,365	9,861
Products,.....	226,186	229,358	\$3,172
Breadstuffs,.....	3,446,852	3,751,621	304,769
Oils,.....	1,048,729	1,105,739	57,010
Fish,.....	398,714	439,795	41,079
Other articles,.....	292,277	301,729	9,432
Total,	9,805,959	9,776,428	29,531
<i>Manufactures.</i>				
Cotton,.....	3,084,776	3,918,880	834,104
Woollen,.....	281,066	357,478	76,402
Linen,.....	2,805,780	2,502,263	302,527
Leather,.....	571,258	524,934	46,324
Silks,.....	489,014	435,518	53,496
Total, ...	7,231,895	7,740,074	508,179
Lumber,.....	1,292,788	1,331,015	48,227
Precious metals,.....	2,803,119	1,691,856	1,112,263
Other articles,.....	4,162,048	4,160,815	21,233
GRAND TOTAL,.....	25,315,803	24,700,189	615,614
" " 1838,.....	24,729,878			
Excess, 1839,.....	585,925			
<i>Exportation.</i>				
Sugar,.....	8,290,387	11,264,367	2,973,980
Coffee,.....	1,950,460	2,143,574	193,114
Molasses,	300,163	1,346,820	546,657
Rum,.....	174,055	211,051	36,996
Wax,.....	147,686	115,311	32,375
Leaf Tobacco,.....	1,273,069	1,395,639	122,540
Cigars,.....	637,558	535,122	102,436
Copper ore,.....	3,706,951	3,706,951
Other articles,.....	3,252,245	581,814	2,671,431
Island Products,.....	16,626,627	21,300,701	4,674,074
<i>Foreign Products.</i>				
Silk,.....	104,586	74,319	30,266
Quicksilver,.....	9,900	7,461	2,439
Linen,.....	333,616	164,504	166,112
Cotton wool,.....	513,772	1,842,192	1,328,420
" manufacture,.....	843,259	539,051	304,207
Liquors,.....	135,252	95,105	40,147
Other articles,..	1,180,046	865,349	32,269
Foreign Products,.....	3,129,430	3,587,981	458,551
Specie,.....	1,725,804	1,053,100	672,704
GRAND TOTAL,.....	21,481,862	25,941,783	4,459,921
" " 1838,.....	40,271,102			
	1,010,759			

This table shows a vast increase in the productions of the island, which constitute its chief exports. The following table will show the proportion which each nation has had of the year's business.

The importation and exportation, in ships of different nations, have been as follows :—

COMMERCE OF THE ISLAND.	1839.		1840.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
<i>National Commerce.</i>				
Spanish ships,	\$5,298,461	\$2,712,547	\$5,288,270	\$3,473,630
Foreign "	22,054	7,145	6,985
<i>Foreign Commerce.</i>				
Spanish ships,	7,108,704	1,951,715	6,684,718	2,044,441
United States ships,	6,132,794	5,528,045	5,654,125	5,660,739
Spanish American ships,	1,467,125	70,985	915,541	37,219
English ships,	1,770,499	5,141,098	1,437,199	6,749,438
French ships,	714,664	845,906	618,461	908,605
German ships,	332,909	1,604,460	391,231	2,122,057
Dutch ships,	220,170	449,625	269,070	713,564
Italian ships,	35,445	112,505	21,198	108,546
Portuguese ships,	17,001	312,401	8,294	211,397
Danish ships,	108,059	266,403	47,914	924,378
Bonded,	2,087,911	2,478,848	3,357,172	2,987,745
TOTAL,	25,315,803	21,481,862	24,700,189	25,941,383

The increase in exportations of the island products has been large to England, the increase being rather more than to Spain. The decrease of importation, it appears, has been less from the United States than from England. The following table will give the business of each port of the island for the two years :—

Statement of the Imports and Exports at and from the Different Ports of Entry in the Island of Cuba, for the years 1839 and 1840.

PORTS OF ENTRY.	1839.		1840.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
Havana,	18,436,888	12,206,737	17,913,310	14,172,579
Cuba,	3,165,422	4,149,866	1,863,624	4,333,744
Neuvitas,	152,637	82,727	10,303	8,220
Matanzas,	1,868,819	3,335,284	1,172,623	181,750
Trinidad,	1,012,267	913,417	156,856	217,562
Baracoa,	36,407	21,456	57,376	43,075
Gibara,	197,840	240,255	2,972,493	5,211,057
Cienfuegos,	187,935	280,699	152,321	151,861
Manzanillo,	155,142	162,252	83,025	49,584
San Espiritu,	21,677	10,681	17,860	19,910
Santa Cruz,	69,497	47,822	990,012	1,046,181
San Juan,	11,255	662	310,741	506,256
TOTAL,	25,315,803	21,481,862	24,700,189	25,961,783

These tables present a great increase in the trade of Cuba. The total commerce of the last three years has been as follows :—

Importations and exportations, in 1840,.....\$50,641,972
 " " in 1839,..... 46,797,665
 " " in 1838,..... 45,200,980

Excess of 1839 over 1838,.....\$1,596,684
 " 1840 " 1839,..... 3,848,307

" 1838, increase of 3 years,... 5,444,901

The business goes on from year to year, steadily increasing. The currency being gold and silver, and the trade in it perfectly free, there are no revulsions and drawbacks upon trade; the produce goes forward to the foreign markets, commanding the highest specie prices, and the proceeds are returned in imports. The accounts of the island,

its commerce and revenues, have, since 1825, been reduced to a perfect system, whereby the movements of its trade and the progress of its prosperity can be ascertained at a glance. The tables showing the results of the year's business, with great accuracy, are published every year. Before 1825, there were no records or means of arriving at any just estimation of the state of the island. At that time the administration of his excellency the Senor Conde de Villeneuve commenced, and under his direction the whole has been completely organized, in a manner displaying great financial skill and much commercial knowledge. This administration is divided into three periods of five years each, and the following table will show the yearly average of business in each of those five years:—

Table, showing the Progress of the Commerce of the Island of Cuba, for three periods, of five years each, showing yearly averages.

COMMERCE AND REVENUE.	1826 to 1830.	1830 to 1835.	1835 to 1840.
Imports in Spanish vessels,.....	1,810,000	7,198,000	10,956,000
“ foreign “	13,607,000	9,558,000	10,698,000
Bonded on entry,.....	1,964,000	952,000	2,394,000
Total of importation,.....	17,377,000	17,708,000	24,048,000
Exports in Spanish vessels,.....	1,779,000	3,056,000	4,378,000
“ foreign “	10,939,000	9,831,000	14,120,000
Bonded,	1,533,000	926,000	2,230,000
Total exports,.....	14,251,000	13,813,000	20,728,000
Flour imported, barrels,.....	179,918	165,523	180,822
Rum exported, pipes,.....	3,606	3,992	5,835
Sugar exported, arrobas,	6,508,138	7,893,567	10,166,555
Coffee exported, “	1,718,865	1,995,832	1,877,646
Wax exported, “	25,790	33,582	31,457
Molasses exported, b'ys,.....	71,922	98,479	128,465
Tobacco leaf, arrobas,.....	102,916	471,994	195,688
Cigars, boxes,.....	245,097	99,763	790,286
Spanish ships, entered,.....	323	710	825
“ “ tonnage,.....	26,734	70,149	90,740
“ “ sailed,.....	306	622	758
“ “ tonnage,.....	22,367	65,426	83,052
Foreign “ entered,.....	1,453	1,272	1,853
“ “ tonnage,.....	239,147	214,017	306,206
“ “ sailed,.....	1,284	1,215	1,866
“ “ tonnage,.....	204,225	227,783	311,073
<i>Revenue.</i>			
Duties on imports,.....	3,993,000	4,245,000	5,465,000
“ exports,.....	1,182,000	825,000	1,015,000
Total maritime duties,.....	5,175,000	5,070,000	6,480,000
Inland revenue,.....	3,379,000	3,605,000	3,650,000
Total revenue,.....	8,554,000	8,675,000	10,130,000

EAST INDIAN COMMERCE.

INDIAN EXPORTS FROM 1838 to 1841.

“The progress of Indian commerce and industry must naturally be watched with much interest in this country, (says the London Journal of Commerce,) and especially so far as relates to the increase in those products of the soil or of manufacture on which most mainly depend the improving capacity of consumption for British produce and manufactures. It is gratifying therefore to find that in respect of the production of exchangeable articles the progress of India is not only steady and prosperous, but really surprising, and

all that can be wished. The fact of itself is a sufficient assurance that the trade of that immense region is as yet but in its cradle. In respect of sugar, the mercantile advices by the overland mail represent that the trade there, as everywhere else indeed, was almost altogether paralyzed by the intelligence of the famous sugar duty and ludicrous free-trade tampering projects of the late ministry, as purchasers naturally hold aloof until the question of lowering the impost on foreign sugars should be decided. The returns of sugar produced and exported exhibit the following satisfactory proportions of increased exports of sugar to Great Britain :—

Year ending 30th of January, 1838,.....	610,679 Maunds.
“ “ 1839,.....	719,056 “
“ “ 1840,.....	787,495 “
“ “ 1841,.....	1,912,125 “

The maund is equal to 82 pounds. The increased production and export between the years 1840 and 1841 alone is therefore in round numbers at the prodigious rate of about 150 per cent. The manufacture and exports of rum were as follow, for the same dates :

	Gallons.		Gallons.
1838,.....	169,804	1840,.....	491,693
1839,.....	201,382	1841,.....	1,205,150

Which shows an almost equal ratio of increase for the last year as in sugar. The exports of saltpetre during the twelve months ending last June were larger than ever before known from thence to this country. For

	Maunds.		Maunds.
1838, they were.....	341,179	1840, they were.....	260,004
1839, “	399,219	1841, “	417,374

The exports to the United States in 1841 amounted to 89,557 maunds besides. The total quantity of indigo exported from November the 1st, 1840, to July 3d, this year, is stated in gross at 33,614 chests, or 122,633 factory maunds, each of these maunds being equal to 78 pounds, of which 24,443 chests, or 89,186 maunds to this country, and 23,317 to France. The increasing value of the trade in hides will thus appear :—Exports to Great Britain in the years ending 30th of June :—

	Pieces.		Pieces.
1838,.....	447,373	1840,.....	924,339
1839,.....	897,049	1841,.....	1,425,277

“ These exports are exclusive of course of those to other countries, such as France and the United States. It will thus be seen that native production has been considerably and advantageously stimulated in eastern India, and the fact affords a sure indication of, as well as guarantee for, a large and progressive improvement in the general trade and resources of that great country, if administered wisely, and in the spirit of peace.

COMMERCE OF BOMBAY.

The following extract from a report of the Chamber of Commerce of Bombay will be perused with interest, as tending to show the extraordinary increase in the trade of that flourishing port :—

“ **INCREASING COMMERCE OF BOMBAY.**—The ‘Comparative Statement of the Exports and Imports for the fourth quarter of the official years 1839-40 and 1840-41,’ which has just been published by the chamber of commerce, exhibits, if correct, an unparalleled increase in the trade of this port. The total value of the imports in the fourth quarter of 1839-40 amounted to 97,83,299 rs. ; in the corresponding quarter of 1840-41 they amount to 1,50,18,264 rs. ; showing in one quarter the astonishing increase of 52,34,965 rs. Nor does this increase appear to be attributable to the rise of any new, or the progress and advancement of any existing branch of commerce in particular, but is spread over the entire commerce of the place ; for from every country, with one or two excep-

tions, do we appear to have received an increased supply of commodities. The following table will show, in round numbers, the increase from each port or country :—

From the Arabian Gulf,.....	1 Lac.
“ Calcutta,.....	4 “
“ China,.....	2½ “
“ Great Britain,.....	26 “
“ Malabar and Canara,.....	9 “
“ Manilla,.....	2 “
“ Penang and Singapore,.....	5½ “
“ Persian Gulf,.....	2 “

Total increase,..... 52 Lacs.

“ The imports from Cutch and Scinde remain nearly stationary, and from no quarter does there appear more than a nominal decrease.

“ From the subordinate ports of the Concan and Guzerat the increase of imports appears equally startling, amounting as it does to the almost incredible value of 92,44,043 rs., of which 66 lacs are from Guzerat, and 26 lacs from Concan, and the whole of this amount is comprised in two articles, viz :—cotton and opium, there being an increase in the value of the former of 56 lacs, and in the latter of 36 lacs.

“ With regard to the export, the results of our analysis have not less astonished us. In the fourth quarter of 1839.40 the exports amounted in value to 92,57,047 rs.; in the corresponding quarter of this year they amount to 1,65,17,577 rs., exhibiting an increase of 72,60,170 rs.! The following table will show what countries and ports have taken from us this increased amount of products, and the proportion to each :—

To the Arabian Gulf,.....	2 Lacs.
“ China,....	48½ “
“ Cutch and Scinde,.....	5 “
“ Great Britain,.....	15 “
“ Malabar and Canara,.....	4 “
“ Persian Gulf,.....	4 “

Giving a total increase of..... 78½ Lacs.

From which has to be deducted the decrease to the following places :—

To Calcutta,.....	2½ Lacs.
“ Ceylon,	0½ “
“ France,.....	0½ “
“ Penang and Singapore,.....	2½ “
“ Goa, Demaun, and Lisbon,.....	0½ “

Or a total decrease of..... 6½ Lacs.

And leaving a nett increase, in round numbers, of 72 lacs, as stated above. To China the increase noted gives the *entire* export of the quarter, as in the corresponding quarter of the previous year there does not appear to have been a single export to that country, and it therefore shows no increase in the *usual* trade to that country; to the subordinate ports of the Concan and Guzerat the export appears to have diminished; principally to Guzerat, whither they have fallen off in value to the extent of nearly 6 lacs.

“ When we first saw the document from which the above statements are drawn, we were so startled at the results shown, that we conceived some mistake must have been made in the calculations, but a minute examination, if it has not convinced us of its *perfect* correctness, has not enabled us to detect any error, and has proved its general accuracy.

“ In the article of cotton alone, it appears we have received a supply exceeding that of the same period in the previous year by 38,538,303 lbs.; or, assuming a screwed bale to average 3¼ cwt., equal to 105,874 screwed bales; which, if we take the actual increase at 56 lacs, as already stated, would give an average price for each bale of 53 rs.;

a rate, as every merchant will acknowledge, not very wide of truth. We state this as confirmatory of the general accuracy of the statements; the same results being deduced from different data.

"On carrying out our inquiries further, and examining into the supplies of cotton brought to market during the twelve months ending the 31st May, we find that the result is well calculated to astonish those who have not been marking the progressive increase of this product, but have been dwelling with fancied security on their recollection of what used to constitute a large supply—viz, 200 to 250,000 bales. It appears, then, that from the 1st of June, 1840, to the 1st of June, 1841, the imports of cotton into Bombay have amounted to 174,212,755 lbs., or, on the previous average of $3\frac{1}{4}$ cwt. to the bale, 478,606—little short of half a million screwed bales! This is a larger quantity than America produced up to the year 1826, and more than was consumed in England during the same year. In 1825, the entire production of the United States amounted only to 169,860,000 lbs., though twelve years after, in 1837, it had reached 444,211,537 lbs.!

"As a further encouragement to the cultivators, we may state that the consumption of East India cotton in Great Britain has increased in a greater ratio than that of any other quality whatever. In 1816, at which period the average price of American Uplands was $18\frac{1}{4}$ d., and that of Surat $15\frac{1}{4}$ d., the consumption of American was 4,036 bales, and East Indian 207 bales per week. In 1839, when the average price of Uplands was 7.875d., and Surats $5\frac{1}{4}$ d., the consumption of American was 15,644, and East Indian 2,142 packages per week; the increase in twenty-three years of the last being in the ratio of ten to one, and that of the first barely four to one. In the same period the consumption of Brazilian, Egyptian, and West Indian qualities had not doubled."

The lac represents 100,000 rupees, or, in sterling, £10,000.

AUSTRIAN COMMERCE.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS IN EACH YEAR, FROM 1828 TO 1838.

The following statistical table of the commerce of the Austrian empire with foreign powers, from 1828 to 1838 inclusive, has just been published by Dr. Sigfield, at Vienna:

	<i>Exports.</i>	<i>Imports.</i>
1829.....	Florins, 107,254,043	Florins, 95,321,861
1830.....	110,586,974	99,545,289
1831.....	98,937,022	94,106,471
1832.....	115,017,352	107,825,991
1833.....	116,624,202	106,270,012
1834.....	111,092,942	107,781,409
1835.....	115,217,884	121,182,876
1836.....	122,284,173	130,865,339
1837.....	119,621,758	120,867,761
1838.....	134,918,654	127,445,295

Total in ten years,.....1,111,542,304 1,151,555,334

The principal articles exported were wool, woollen stuffs, and raw silk. The imports were chiefly cotton and cattle. During the above period the exports of wool and the imports of cotton were doubled. The exports of raw silk and woollen stuffs increased 33 per cent, and the imports of cattle 14 per cent.

RUSSIAN COMMERCE.

EXPORTS FROM ST. PETERSBURGH TO THE UNITED STATES.

"The growing trade of Russia has frequently attracted observation, and the quantity and value of the merchandise brought forward at the recent fair of Nischny Novogorod, (says a German paper,) is a convincing proof of that. Among the items we may notice 300,000 poods of iron, all sold; 36,000 poods of copper, 40,000 chests of teas, nearly

all of which found buyers, though at lower prices than last year, when the supplies were expected to be stopped; 3000 casks of sugar, and 13,000 chests of indigo. Of Russian silk and half-silk fabrics for seven millions of roubles, assignats, were sold; of cotton goods, for thirty millions; of woollen, for eleven millions; and of cloth, for six millions of roubles. Cotton yarn, red dyed, 11,000 poods; linen, 15,000; archines, about 12,000 yards; fur manufactures, for six millions of roubles; brandy, 25,000 wedros, or about 68,000 gallons; and red and white wine, 150,000 wedros, or 135,000 gallons, with a good sale for all. Iron was rather flat. The total amount of the Russian goods at this year's fair was 35,159,685 roubles, against 29,922,493 roubles, at the fair in 1840. The supplies of goods from Europe, not manufactured in Russia, were for 2,019,421 roubles in 1840, and for 2,086,407 roubles in 1841. This year the value of woollen fabrics from Europe was 195,700, of cotton and yarn 309,200, of linen 149,800, of silk 198,000, and of wines 922,000 roubles. A comparison with the figures given in the earlier part of our statement will show how large a proportion of the manufactures must have been domestic:—

Exported from St. Petersburg to the United States, to September 5th, in 1841.

Bar Iron,.....	poods, 268,651	Half Duck,.....	pcs. 600
Sheet Iron,.....	" 44,968	Flems,.....	" 13,856
Hemp, Clean,.....	" 58,124	Raven's Duck,.....	" 16,869
" Outshot,.....	" 42,127	Mats,.....	" 53,290
" Half Clean,.....	" 9,103	Diaper,.....	tchts. 1,665,000
" Codilla,.....	" 2,817	Crash,.....	" 581,000
Cordage,.....	" 13,487	Linen,.....	" 83,000
Oakum,.....	" 4,837	Quills,.....	qs. 3,030,200
Feathers,.....	" 12,225	Isinglass,.....	poods, 19
Horsemanes,.....	" 808	Cantharides,.....	" 40
Bristles,.....	" 3,740	Flax,.....	" 6,450
Russia Leather,.....	" 315	White Wax,.....	" 700
Linseed,.....	tchts. 4,493	Brown Rolls,.....	pcs. 5,057
Sailcloth,.....	pcs. 24,613	Bale Rope,.....	poods, 28,565

STATE OF COMMERCE AT HAVRE.

The statistical accounts showing the state of commerce at Havre have lately appeared. The comparative state of business in cotton is thus shown, by which it is seen that the fluctuations in the stock and deliveries of cotton have been considerable:—

YEAR.	Stock, 1st of January.	Arrivals in Eight Months.	Delivered in Eight Months.	Stock, end of August.
1841.....	bales 77,000	287,815	213,015	151,800
1840.....	" 57,000	340,841	265,341	132,500
1839.....	" 33,800	207,256	153,456	87,600
1838.....	" 33,000	254,171	218,571	68,600
1837.....	" 45,500	209,344	184,844	70,000
1836.....	" 18,800	249,863	187,463	51,500
1835.....	" 22,000	185,280	142,880	61,400
1834.....	" 34,000	159,843	161,643	32,200

BANK OF ENGLAND.

The Bank of England covers five acres of ground, and employs over nine hundred clerks. Every thing for the use of the bank is made on its own premises, and the printing of its notes is a large item. A note once returned to the bank is never to be reissued, but is filed away, and at the end of ten years burnt. The workmen are busily at work every day in the year save Sundays, in printing notes. At the annual burning, two days are required, with a large fire, to destroy the old notes; and it employs two men constantly in feeding the fires.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

REGULATIONS OF THE PORT OF BALTIMORE.

EXTRACTS FROM THE ORDINANCES NOW IN FORCE.

It is incumbent on the harbor-master to collect all tonnage daily, and whenever two days' tonnage is due, and the payments not secured to his satisfaction, he shall enforce the payment thereof in the same manner as other city dues are collected.

The sum of two cents per ton shall be, and is hereby assessed and levied upon every vessel of sixty or more tons, arriving at the port of Baltimore, which, by the laws of the United States, is required to report and enter at the customhouse, and the collector of the port shall be and is hereby authorized to collect the same.

Also the sum of two cents per ton shall be, and is hereby assessed and levied upon every vessel of sixty tons or more, arriving at the port of Baltimore, which, by the laws of the United States, is not required to report and enter at the customhouse, and that the harbor-masters shall be and they are hereby authorized to collect the same, provided, nevertheless, that the sum of money assessed and levied by this section shall be collected from each vessel but once a month, although she may arrive more frequently.

DOCKAGE.

All vessels, except those with firewood, lying at or in any manner making use of any wharf belonging to or rented by the state, shall pay dockage according to the following rates:—

Those occupying the 1st tier, per ton, per day, 1 cent.
" " 2d do. " " 0½ "
All beyond the 2d do. " " 0½ "

WHARFAGE.

From and after the passage of this ordinance, all goods, wares, or merchandise landed on the public wharves from on board any vessel or vessels lying at said wharves, or placed thereon for the purpose of shipment or exposure for sale, shall pay the following rates of wharfage for each and every day the same may remain thereon, or any less time, (excepting, however, firewood and lumber, the rates of which are to be accounted for the whole time allowed by ordinance for the same to remain on the wharves,) to be paid by the owner or consignee, or in event of there being none, the master of the vessel; and all goods shipped from one vessel to another, one half price to be paid by the shipper or owner.

	Cents.		Cents.
Anchors and chain cables, ton weight	25	Boxes lemons and oranges,.....each	02
Anvils,.....each	01	Boxes oil, wine, and cider,.....each	02
Almonds, in sacks,.....each	02	Boxes chocolate,.....each	01
" in bags,.....each	00½	Boxes soap, tin, and candles,.....each	01
Ashes, oyster shells, &c., per cart load	05	Boxes tacks and pipes,.....each	01
Bags of coffee, ginger, pepper, &c., in similar bags,.....each	01	Boxes cheese,.....each	00½
Bags sugar,.....each	01	Boxes herrings,.....each	00½
Bags, barrels, or sacks salt,.....each	02	Boxes raisins,.....each	00½
Bales of merchandise,.....each	04	Boxes window glass,.....per 100 feet	00½
Bales or bags feathers,.....each	02	Half boxes window glass,.....each	00½
Bales rags,.....each	04	Boxes of shoes,.....each	03
Bales tobacco,.....each	02	Boxes of drygoods and sugars,....each	03
Bales merchandise, cotton, &c....each	04	Boxes drugs and gums,.....each	03
Boxes merchandise,.....each	03	Barrels beef and pork,.....each	03
Boxes of Havana sugars,.....each	04	Barrels flour, bread, and meal,....each	02
Boxes Brazil sugars,.....per ton	25	Half bbls. flour, bread, and meal, each	01
		Barrels, empty,.....	free

RATES OF WHARFAGE AT BALTIMORE.—Continued.

	Cents.		Cents.
Barrels containing liquids,.....each	03	Hemp, wrought iron, or steel, per ton	25
Bundles leather,.....each	02	Ivory,.....per ton	50
Bricks,.....per thousand	12½	Iron,.....per ton	25
Bales of hay,.....each	06½	Jars of grapes, oil, olives,.....each	01
Bags shot,.....each	00½	Kegs of lard and butter,.....	01
Barrels fish,.....each	02	Kegs of crackers,.....each	00½
Half and Quarter barrels fish,.....each	01	Kegs and boxes of tobacco,.....each	02
Ceroons of indigo,.....each	06½	Half kegs and half boxes tobacco, each	01
Chalk,.....per ton	25	Kegs shot, of 300 lbs. or 12 bags,	03
Cases merchandise,.....each	03	Kegs nails, raisins, and other articles	
Cases of indigo,.....each	12½	of equal capacity,.....each	01
Cases of muskets,.....each	04	Lead, in sheets and pigs,.....per ton	25
Cases of copper,.....each	03	Lime, in casks,.....each	05
Cases of gin,.....each	01	Log and other dyewoods,.....per ton	25
Coal,.....per 30 bushels	06½	Laths,.....per thousand	03
Cordage,.....per ton	25	Lumber, per 1000 feet, not ex. 5 days	15
Cambooses or stoves,.....each	06½	Leather,.....per one hundred sides	15
Cannon,.....each	12½	Mahogany,.....per 500 feet	30
Chairs,.....each	00½	Mats of sugar,.....each	01
Crates,.....each	05	Millstones,.....each	25
Casks of cheese,.....each	02	Mats of Cassia,.....per hundred	10
Casks of nails,.....each	01	Nests wooden ware,.....each	01
Carboys,.....each	02	Onions,.....per bushel, or 20 bunches	00½
Carriages,.....each	25	Oranges,.....per thousand	10
Cart wheels,.....each	02	Oars,.....per 1000 feet	20
Chests of tea,.....each	04	Oil, whale and sperm, per 150 gal. cask.	12½
Half chests tea,.....each	02	Oil,.....tierces, under 100 gallons	10
Quarter chests tea,.....each	01	Oil,.....tierces, under 80 gallons	05
Cork,.....per ton	10	Oil,.....per barrel	03
Carts or wagons,.....each	25	Packages, small merchandise,.....each	02
Demijohns,.....each	01	Plaster,.....per ton	10
Dyewood,.....per ton	25	Paper, wrapping, per bundle,.....each	00½
Drums of fish,.....each	05	Ploughs,.....each	02
Drums of raisins,.....each	01	Potatoes,.....per bushel	00½
Drums of figs,.....each	00½	Pitch,.....per barrel	02
Fish, per quintal,.....each	01	Rattans,.....per ton	25
Firkins,.....each	01	Rosin,.....per barrel	02
Firewood,.....per cord, for two days	06½	Salt,.....hogsheads, each	05
Gunstocks,.....per thousand	30	Do. loose,.....per bushel	00½
Granite and other stone,.....per perch	10	Slate,.....per ton	20
Grindstones,.....per ton	25	Steel, in bundles,.....per ton	25
Grain, foreign,.....per bushel	00½	Shovels,.....per dozen	02
Hogsheads of liquids,.....each	10	Staves, barrel,.....per thousand	12½
Do. containing sugar, &c.....each	10	Do., hogshead and pipe, per thousand	20
Do. empty,.....each	02	Stone ballast,.....per ton	06½
Do. hoops and poles,.....per thousand	20	Sheep and Swine,.....each	02
Hemp,.....per ton	25	Shingles,.....per thousand	03
Hampers of bottles,.....each	03	Trunks of merchandise,.....each	03
Horns,.....per thousand	20	Tar and turpentine,.....per barrel	02
Horn tips,.....per thousand	06½	Tierces dry merchandise.....each	05
Hides, ox or horse,.....each	00½	Half tierces do.....each	02½
Hoop poles,.....per thousand	10	Tea kettles,.....per dozen	01½
Horses and mules,.....each	05	Timber,.....per 1000 feet	15
Hops,.....per sack, each	65	Tierces of rice, and similar goods, each	05
Horn cattle,.....each	00½	Wood and bark,.....per cord	06½

It is also enacted that it shall be the duty of the harbor-masters to make their returns to the register of all moneys collected by them, so as to designate that received from vessels for wharfage or tonnage, and that received from goods, distinctly, and the names of the vessels so collected from.

TABLE OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MONEYS AND EXCHANGES.

DENOTED AT A PAR WITH LONDON.

Places.	Moneys.	Ster. Val.*	Exch. at par with London.
		s. d.	
Austria,.....	60 kreutzers=1 florin.....	2 00 1.2	£1=9 fl. 50 kr.
Bavaria,.....	60 kreutzers=1 florin.....	1 08	
Belgium,.....	100 cents=1 franc.....	0 09 1.2	£1=25 fr. 22 ets.
Brazil,.....	1000 reas=1 paper milrea, about...	2 07	
Bremen,.....	360 schwaren=72 grotes=1 rix dol.	3 03 1.2	£100=609 1.4 rix dol.
Buenos Ayres,....	128 quartos=8 reales=1 paper dol.	0 05	
Canada,.....	12 pence=1 shilling currency.....	0 10	{ £100 st.=£120 cur. or 8 per cent prem.
	20 shillings=1 pound currency.....	16 08	
	. In exchanges £100 currency are valued at £90 sterling, giving a premium for bills on London.		
China,.....	100 candarines=10 mace=1 tale...	0 06	
Cuba,.....	8 reales=1 dollar.....	4 02	8 per cent premium.
Demerara, &c.....	100 cents=1 dollar.....	4 02	50d.=£1.
Denmark,.....	96 skillings=1 rigsbank dollar.....	2 02 1.2	£1=9 r. dol. 10 skil.
Egypt,.....	40 paras=1 piastre.....	0 02 2.5	£1=100 piastres.
France,.....	100 centimes=1 franc.....	0 09 1.2	£1=25 fr. 22 cent.
	20 francs=1 napoleon or new louis	15 10 1.4	
Frankfort, (Main)	15 batzen=1 florin of exchange....	2 00 1.4	£1=148 1.5 batz.
Genoa,.....	100 centesimi=1 lira nuovo.....	0 09 1.2	£1=25 lir. 22 cent.
Germany,.....	90 kreutzers=1 rix dol. of account	3 00 1.2	
	Rhenish florin 1s. 8d. convention fl.	2 00 1.2	
	Gold ducat 9s. 4d. rix dol. specie...	4 01	
Gibraltar,.....	192 quartos=12 reales=1 hard dol.	4 02	50d.=1 hard dol.
Greece,.....	100 centimes=1 drachma.....	0 08 3.4	£1=28 dr. 15 cent.
Hamburg,.....	16 schillings=1 marco banco.....	1 05 1.2	£1=13m. 10 1.2 schil.
Holland,.....	100 cts.=20 stivers=1 fl. or guilder	1 08	£1=12 fl. 9 cts.
India,.....	E. India Co's rupee (general coin)	1 10 1.4	{ 1s. 10 1.4d.=1 E. I. Company's rupee.
Calcutta,.....	192 pice=16 annas=1 sicca rupee	1 11 3.4	
Leghorn,.....	100 centimes=1 Tuscan livre.....	0 07 3.4	£1=30 T. l. 53 cent.
Malta,.....	600 grani=30 tari=2½ scudi=1 pez.	4 00	48d.=1 pezza.
Monte Video,.....	800 reis=8 reales=1 current dollar	3 04	40d.=1 dollar.
Naples,.....	100 grani=10 carlini=5 tari=1 duc.	3 03 3.4	39 3.4d.=1 ducat.
Norway,.....	96 skillings=1 specie dollar.....	4 04 3.4	£1=4 sp. dol. 53 skil.
Persia,.....	50 abassia=10 karauns=1 tomaun	10 00	
Poland,.....	30 gros=1 Polish florin.....	0 05 4.5	
Portugal,.....	1000 reas=1 milrea.....	4 10 1.4	58 1.4d.=1 milrea.
Prussia,.....	30 silver groschen=1 thaler.....	2 10 3.4	£1=6 thal. 27 gros.
Rome,.....	100 bajocchi=10 paoli=1 scudo....	4 02	£1=48 paoli.
Russia,.....	100 copecs=1 silver rouble.....	3 01 1.2	£1=6 roub. 40 cop.
Saxony,.....	288 pfennings=24 groschen=1 rixd.	3 00 1.2	£1=6 rixd. 13 3.4 groa.
Sicily,.....	600 grani=30 tari=2½ scudi=1 on.	10 03 1.2	123 1.2d.=1 onza.
Singapore,.....	100 cents=1 hard dollar.....	4 02	50d.=1 dollar.
Spain,.....	8 reales plate=1 dollar plate.....	3 01 3.4	{ 37 3.4d.=1 dol. pla.
	20 reales vellon=1 hard dollar.....	4 02	
	4 pistoles=1 doubloon.....	64 01	
Spanish America,	100 cents or 8 reales=1 hard dollar	4 02	50d.=1 hard dollar
Sweden,.....	48 skillings=1 rix dollar banco.....	1 08	
Switzerland,.....	100 rappen=10 batzen=1 Swiss fr.	1 02 1.4	£1=16 fr. 82 rap.
Turkey,.....	40 paras=1 piastre, about.....	0 02 2.5	
United States,....	100 cents=1 dollar.....	4 01 1.4	{ £1=4 dol. 87 cts. or 9 23.40 per ct. prem.
	10 dollars=1 eagle.....	41 01	
	. In exchanges the dollar is valued at 4s. 6d., giving a premium for bills on London.		
Venet. Lombardy,	100 centesimi=1 lira Austriacha	0 08 1.4	£1=29 lir. 52 cent.
West Indies,.....	The nominal values of £100 sterling in the currencies of the British islands are as follows:—Jamaica, £140; Barbadoes, £135; Windward Islands, except Barbadoes, £175; Leeward Islands, £200. But these values differ, in most instances widely, from the actual exchange.		

* In the above valuation standard gold is estimated at £3 17s. 10½d., and silver at 5s. per ounce.

STEAMBOAT AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

STEAMBOATS ON THE OHIO.

"We have been," says the Cincinnati Daily Gazette, "for some time preparing a table to show the great business done on our western waters, and by the exhibition of the number of steamboats, to show how shamefully our western interests are neglected, and how great consequently is the loss we by this neglect sustain. In our statement we have been aided by a valuable list of steamboats published in the Louisville Advertiser, which we have used for our present purpose. This list also shows the boats built at Louisville and other places on the river.

Pittsburg,.....	98	Portsmouth,.....	5	Marietta,.....	8
Louisville,.....	17	New York,.....	5	Nashville,.....	1
Cincinnati,.....	89	Jeffersonville,.....	19	Greenfield,.....	1
Paducah,.....	1	Grave Creek,.....	2	Big Sandy,.....	1
Freedom,.....	2	Bridgeport,.....	1	Alleghany River,.....	1
Gallipolis,.....	1	Crookston,.....	1	Manchester,.....	2
Madison,.....	8	McKeesport,.....	1	Munerysville,.....	2
Geneva,.....	2	Elorstown,.....	1	Millersburgh,.....	1
Fishing Creek,.....	2	Point Pleasant,.....	1	Kanawha,.....	3
Wheeling,.....	17	Mouth Cumberland Riv.	9	Shade River,.....	1
Brownsville,.....	15	Baltimore,.....	1	Mouth Tennessee River,	2
Hamar,.....	2	Sharpsburgh,.....	5	Charleston,.....	1
Beaver,.....	1	Clarksville,.....	1	Ripley,.....	1
New Albany,.....	20	Lawrenceburgh,.....	1	Brush Creek,.....	1
Steubenville,.....	2	Jacksonville,.....	2	Salisbury,.....	1
Belle Vernon,.....	3	Rising Sun,.....	1	Wellsville,.....	1
Shouseton,.....	2	Elizabethtown,.....	5		
TOTAL,.....					371

"The tonnage of these boats amounts to the sum of 64,928 tons. The number of steamboats built or building at Cincinnati and at other points, in 1841, is extraordinary, and shows how rapidly the resources of the west are being developed, and how great the demand for boats to carry passengers and produce from point to point."

It also appears by the Gazette that there were 35 boats built at Cincinnati, in 1841.

WINTER TARIFF ON THE RAILWAY BETWEEN BOSTON AND ALBANY.

The Western railroad was opened in December. The directors of the Western and Worcester railroads have agreed upon the following scale of charges for the winter business. The rates adopted are generally low, (says the Boston Transcript,) and while the navigation is closed, will doubtless insure a large patronage to the line, and there is reason to believe that when the snows of the winter have passed, the permanent depot at Albany completed, the capacity of the road tested by actual experience, and the Hudson road rebuilt, as it will be by the next summer, lower rates will be established in view of the spring and summer business. The charges for passengers this winter will be as follows :—

	1st Class.	2d Class.
Between Boston and Albany,.....	\$5 50	\$3 66½
“ “ Pittsfield,.....	4 12½	2 75
“ “ Springfield,.....	3 00	2 00
“ Albany and Worcester,.....	4 25	3 12½
“ “ Springfield,.....	3 00	2 00
“ “ Pittsfield,.....	1 50	1 00

Merchandise will be divided into four classes :—

The first class, comprising silks, spices, teas, cases of bonnets, fine goods, hats, shoes, &c., (taken through,) at 50 cents per 100 lbs.

The second class, comprising butter, cheese, groceries, hides, leather, hams, cotton, domestics, (carried through,) for 40 cents per 100 lbs.

The third class, pork and fresh meat in bulk, lime, marble, plaster, iron, lumber, salt, grain, roots, (carried through,) for 32½ cents per 100 lbs.

The fourth class, flour, (taken through,) for 50 cents per barrel.

The charges will be as follows: on

	1st Class.	2d Class.	3d Class.	4th Class.
Boston and Albany, for 100 lbs...	50 cents.	40 cents.	32½ cents.	25 cents.
" Pittsfield,.... "	40 "	30 "	24½ "	25 "
" Springfield,... "	27½ "	22½ "	16½ "	22 "
Albany and Worcester,... "	40 "	30 "	24½ "	25 "
" Springfield,... "	27½ "	22½ "	15½ "	22½ "
" Pittsfield,.... "	15 "	12 "	10 "	15 "

MASSACHUSETTS RAILWAYS.

Joseph E. Bloomfield, Esq., has prepared and published in the *Courier & Enquirer* the returns of nine railways in Massachusetts in use in 1840; also, a comparative table of the cost, receipts, income, and dividends for four years, of the Boston & Lowell, the Providence, and the Worcester railways. These several roads present a success with the railway system that is not exceeded on the best lines in England, where the population to the square mile so much exceeds that of Massachusetts.

If we add to the cost of the nine enumerated roads,.....\$15,329,192
 The cost of the Boston & Portland road, up to 1840,..... 523,091
 And the estimated cost of the Albany & West Stockbridge railroad, (a } 1,412,840
 part of the Western,)..... }

We find expended by Massachusetts,.....\$17,265,023
 With an average annual nett income of 7½ per cent.

The main line from Boston to Worcester is 44½ miles; from Worcester to West Stockbridge, 117; and from Stockbridge to Albany, 38½—in all 200 miles.

The cost of this road, with the depots, locomotives, and cars for a freighting business, will exceed nine millions of dollars, being a sum much greater than the first cost of both the Erie and the Champlain canals. This great cost has been incurred by Massachusetts, in running a railway at right angles with a succession of rocky ridges, crossing numerous streams to tap the New York western trade, during the suspension of navigation on the Hudson.

It will be perceived that it has cost in Massachusetts \$1,732,353 to earn \$3,634,980
 The receipts from freight and the mails were 1,248,874
 From passengers,..... 2,386,106

The expenses are 47 per cent of the receipts, and the freight, as compared with the receipts from passengers, as one to two. On the Boston & Lowell railroad the receipts from freight nearly equal those from passengers. The average nett income for four years, as observed on all the roads, is equal to 7½ per cent, with a steady increase in the item of freight, and a diminution of expenses in their management.

It is ascertained that there are 3,300 miles of railway completed and now in use in the United States, on which about \$100,000,000 have been expended. These several roads now yield on an average, according to returns made by the Chevalier de Gerstner, a nett income of 5½ per cent. There are 1700 miles of railway now in the course of construction, which are nearly ready for public use; and 2000 miles in addition, which have been projected and surveyed.

During the period of the construction of this *better improvement of the age*, not one tenth of this number of miles of canals have been entered on, and all are failures in this country to pay 3 per cent on their cost, with the exceptions of the Erie and Schuylkill canals.

TABLE OF THE COST, RECEIPTS, INCOME, AND DIVIDENDS

ON THE RAILWAYS IN USE IN MASSACHUSETTS, IN 1840.

Compiled by Jos. E. Bloomfield, from the Annual Reports to the Legislature, January, 1841, made by the several Corporations under oath; also, a Comparative View of the Boston & Lowell, and also the Providence and the Worcester Railways, for the years 1837, 1838, 1839, 1840:—

NAME OF ROAD.	Year.	Length.	Expended in the Cost of the Road.	Cost of Road per Mile.	Repairs of Road per Mile.	Repairs of Engines and Cars, per annum.	Total Expenses.	Total Receipts.	From Passengers.	Freight, and the Mails.	Dividend per annum.	Remarks.
Boston & Lowell,.....	1837				\$546	\$650	\$78,508	\$180,770	\$117,643	\$63,137	7 per c.	Double track, with a large freighting business.
Do.	1838				611	421	75,597	191,780	109,083	82,697	7	
Do.	1839				731	636	92,151	241,220	135,037	106,131	8	
Do.	1840	25½	1,729,242	\$63,000	816	561	91,400	231,575	127,008	104,567	8	
Boston & Providence,...	1837				285	726	156,238	250,832	193,469	57,413	8	
Do.	1838				411	486	120,044	265,144	196,974	68,140	8	Single track, with turnouts.
Do.	1839				209	474	93,562	313,907	234,237	74,670	8	
Do.	1840	41	1,782,000	43,460	334	409	143,127	202,601	134,651	67,947	7	
Boston & Worcester,...	1837				208	450	94,762	210,047	123,331	86,716	7½	
Do.	1838				281	349	85,572	212,324	112,032	100,292	7½	In part a dou- ble track.
Do.	1839				405	564	126,384	231,807	122,496	109,311	6	
Do.	1841	44½	1,934,981	43,300	890	374	140,441	257,547	170,855	96,692	6	
Lowell & Nashua,.....	1839				272	156	29,885	55,053	36,647	18,406	6½	Single track.
Do.	1840	14½	386,703	2,540	243	332	52,532	82,638	35,794	46,849	6½	
Eastern, incomplete,....	1839				163	214	53,174	125,623	113,068	12,564	7	Incomplete.
Do.	1840	60	1,864,190	31,000	316	516	85,793	183,296	164,971	18,326	5	
Taunton Branch,.....	1839				127	287	40,711	58,018	40,910	17,108	5	
Do.	1840	11	250,000	22,791	237	156	44,671	75,477	44,900	30,577	7	
N. Bedford & Taunton, 1840	1840	11½	387,500	34,459	233	120	18,020	26,437	23,250	3,186	6	Just finished.
Norwich & Worcester, 1840	1840	58½	1,777,471	30,380			52,503	116,517	78,900	37,617		Do.
Western,.....	1840	117	5,235,025	44,470	161	119	62,071	112,347	70,821	41,826		Nearly finish'd.
		383½	\$15,329,192	\$40,024	\$384	\$438	\$1,732,353	\$3,634,980	\$2,386,106	\$1,248,871	7½ avg.	

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

NOTICE TO NAVIGATORS.

SABINE PASS.—EAST END GALVESTON ISLAND.—CORPUS CHRISTI PASS.—ARANSAS BAR.—ESPIRITO SANTO PASS.—PASS CABELLO.

E. W. Moore, commander of the Texas schooner of war San Antonio, furnishes the latitude and longitude of all the entrances he has been off during the past summer.

SABINE PASS.—Lat. 29 deg. 38 min. 46 sec. north, long. 93 deg. 53 min. 15 sec. west of Greenwich. Eight feet water on the bar, soft mud, very much like the mud at the mouth of the Mississippi.

EAST END GALVESTON ISLAND.—Lat. 29 deg. 19 min. north, long. 94 deg. 47 min. 10 sec. west of Greenwich, 12 feet water on the bar, hard sand.

CORPUS CHRISTI PASS.—Lat. of north end of Padre Island, which forms the south side of entrance, 27 deg. 36 min. 50 sec. north, long. 97 deg. 16 min. 5 sec. west. From 4 to 5 feet water on the bar, but so heavy a surf that it is dangerous crossing in a boat.

ARANSAS BAR.—Lat. of beacons on NE. end of Meslang Island, which forms the south side of the entrance, 27 deg. 49 min. 15 sec. north, long. 97 deg. 03 min. 54 sec. west. Eight feet water, bottom hard sand.

ESPIRITO SANTO PASS, commonly called Cedar Bayou.—Lat. of northeast end of St. Joseph's Island, which forms the south side of entrance, 28 deg. 05 min. north, long. 96 deg. 48 min. 10 sec. west. Four feet water on the bar, hard sand.

PASS CABELLO.—Lat. of northeast end of Matagorda Island, which forms the west side of entrance, 28 deg. 19 min. 24 sec. north, long. 96 deg. 25 min. 05 sec. west. Large eleven feet water on the bar, and but 163 yards across it—bottom sand.

Mr. E. W. Moore has completed the survey of Pass Cabello, and has placed a buoy, moored with chain, on the extreme point of the shoal. He says—Vessels crossing the bar should pass to the westward of the buoy, and within from fifteen to eighty yards, in which channel there is large 11 feet, at ordinary high water. The bay is by far the best bay in Texas, there being ample room for one thousand vessels to lay at their moorings, and not one of them be in less than four fathoms water.

VALUE OF BAROMETRICAL OBSERVATION.

Captain Oldrey, commanding the Hyacinth, sloop of war, was working up for Barbadoes, August 10, 1831, when the hurricane came on. He had been on deck during the finest weather ever witnessed in that climate, and had just been admiring the beauty of the evening. The atmosphere to the horizon was perfectly clear, not a cloud obscuring the sky, nor was there the least probability of a change, as far as could be judged from any appearance observable in the heavens or in the ocean. Going below to his cabin, the captain flung himself upon a sofa, and a minute or two afterwards chancing to cast his eyes upon a barometer suspended near, he observed that the mercury was falling. It was a moment when he would not have thought of consulting the instrument for any purpose, and so strange did he think the circumstance that he rubbed his eyes, imagining he was deceived. Still the mercury fell; he got off the sofa, and approaching the instrument, discovered that the quicksilver was falling with a perceptible motion. He went on deck, but the weather was as lovely as before; he descended again, shook the instrument, and still the descent was certain and continued. A fall so rapid and remarkable, of which he had never seen nor heard a parallel instance, convincing him that something was about to happen, he called the first lieutenant and master, and stated

what he had seen. These officers allowed that there could be no storm likely, the sea and sky were then so clear and beautiful. The captain was not of their opinion; and as the ordinary falling of the barometer indicated a storm, he resolved to prepare for one with a speed and energy proportioned to the singular rapidity of the indication. He ordered every thing instantly to be made snug, the topmasts to be struck and all to be got down and secured upon deck. The officers and ship's company were surprised, and still incredulous. One man said to another, "The captain is determined to sweat us." By an activity urged on by the union of command and entreaty, all was lowered and secured. The officers of the ship, except the captain, were still of their previous opinion, and well they might be; so far, none of the appearances existed that usually precede storms and hurricanes in that latitude. The evening had closed in by the time the operations on board the ship were nearly completed. Captain Oldrey relaxed nothing in the way of preparation to the last, and saw it finished to his satisfaction. An hour or two had gone by afterward, during which his mind had become composed with the reflection that he had been prepared for the worst, when he had proof of the value of the instrumental warning; a storm did come on, and reached its utmost fury almost at once, so that a rag of sail could not be kept up. The wind blew with a fury so great that the sea could not rise into waves, but became one vast plain of foam, on which the ship lay driving furiously along. Fortunately there was ample sea room. This extreme fury of the wind, in which it seemed as if nothing could live, did not continue more than two hours, and for the whole time the ocean was without waves. When the wind abated a little of its greatest force, the sea began to rise, and falling a little more the waves rolled in mountains, while through these the ship bored her way, rather than sailed. The next day the *Hyacinth* arrived at Barbadoes. The hurricane was over. The vessels in Barbadoes harbor, which is two thirds surrounded by rocks, the remainder being a sandy beach, were all driven far up, high and dry, and nearly buried in sand, so that after the calamity was over, there was nothing to do but to dig them out again.

HIGH RIDGE ON THE KOBBERGROUNDS.

It having, by a fresh survey of the Cattegut this summer, [the Cattegut is a gulf of the German Ocean, between Sweden and Jutland, extending for about one hundred and twenty miles from north to south, and seventy from east to west, through which the Baltic sea is entered by three straits called the Sound, the Great Belt, and the Little Belt,] been ascertained, says the Hamburg Borsenhalle, that the high ridge on the Kobbergrounds extends fourteen feet further than hitherto has been known, the Danish general direction of customs and commerce has, under date of the 8th October, notified that two sea-marks have been placed on the same, to mark its whole extent:—

1st. The northern mark before the grounds east of the church of Byrum, on the island Læsø, bearing east according to compass N. 53 W. 2nd. The southerly and outermost mark of Kobbergrounds with three brooms 5-12 quarter leagues easterly of the south point of Kobbergrounds, at the depths of 4 fathoms and 4 feet water, from where the northern mark of the Kobbergrounds bears N. 11 W. and is seen 15 to 16 feet above the level of the sea; the church of Byrum N. 42 W. distance $3\frac{1}{2}$ leagues, and the whole length of the island Læsø N. 26 W.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—HARPERS' FAMILY LIBRARY.

Although we have noticed separately most of the works recently added to this well-known series, we are induced by its striking merits as a whole, its extent, and the important moral and intellectual influence it is exercising on the community, to say a few words in relation to its general character.

The Family Library now numbers 150 volumes, and is receiving accessions as fast as its publishers are enabled to obtain books suited to their purpose. As it is intended to be "exclusively a library of useful knowledge," all fiction is rejected; and that its moral tendency may be unexceptionable, every volume is subjected to a careful revision. Parents, therefore, may feel the utmost confidence in placing it in the hands of their children. No series of books hitherto published in this country has acquired so universal a popularity and so wide a circulation; it is everywhere known, and in almost every bookstore throughout the land its numbers may be found. Two circumstances have contributed to this—the excellence of the books, and their unexampled cheapness. Dear books are for the few, cheap books for the many; and as all our people should read and be intelligent, it is the publication of the latter that should be more especially encouraged.

We can, perhaps, in no way give our readers a better general idea of the character of the Family Library than by naming the works in one or two of the principal departments, premising, that what may still be wanting in any department, it is the intention of the publishers to supply in the future progress of the enterprise. In history, there is a Universal History, a History of the Jews, one of Egypt, of Arabia, of Persia, of Nubia and Abyssinia, of India, of the Crusades, of the Barbary States, of Italy, of England, of Ireland, of British America, of Poland, of Venice, of Sweden, Denmark and Norway, of Iceland and Greenland, of the United States, of Connecticut, of Michigan, &c. In biography, the Life of Alexander the Great, of Charlemagne, of Sir Isaac Newton, of Cromwell, of Frederick the Great, of Mohammed, of Mary, Queen of Scots, of Peter the Great, of Goldsmith, of Johnson, of Galileo, Tycho Brahe, and Kepler, of Drake, Cavendish, and Dampier, of Napoleon, of Nelson, of Lord Byron, of the Empress Josephine, of Bruce, of Washington, of Franklin, of De Witt Clinton, of Jay and Hamilton, of Perry; lives of ancient philosophers, of distinguished men of modern times, of celebrated female sovereigns, of celebrated travellers, of eminent sculptors and painters. The physical sciences, natural history, astronomy, the arts, moral and intellectual philosophy, political science, belles-lettres, &c., &c., are all ably treated. Among the foreign writers some of whose works have a place in the Family Library, we will mention Johnson, Goldsmith, Sir Walter Scott, Southey, Milman, Abercrombie, Montgomery, Dick, Mudie, Keightly, Lockhart, Leslie, Murray, Croly, Cunningham, James, Russel, Brewster, Turner, Mrs. Jameson, Crichton, Combe, Higgins, Tytler, Parry, Bucke, White; and, among the American contributors, Irving, Paulding, Wheaton, Bryant, Halleck, Potter, Renwick, Upham, Thatcher, Bush, Ticknor, Lieber, Hale, Mackenzie, Henry, Griscom, Dana, Camp, Lanman, Hazen, Dwight, Lossing, and Page.

To persons with limited means, but who are still desirous to possess some valuable work on every interesting and important subject, this series cannot be too highly recommended. The 150 volumes already published may be purchased for \$65, (or any number of them at the same rate,) and by expending a very few dollars each year for the additional volumes as they come out, a person, without other books, would soon be in possession of a very complete library,—more complete probably, for all useful purposes, than would be obtained for four times the amount laid out in miscellaneous books. And what an intellectual treasure would this library be to every family—what resources for instruction and for innocent entertainment would it afford!

2.—*Ralph Gemmell, or the Banks of the Irvine; a tale of the Scottish Covenanters.* By ROBERT POLLOK. 18mo. pp. 108. New York: Robert Carter.

This tale, as its title indicates, is of a religious character, and, as the production of the author of "The Course of Time," will secure a large circle of readers.

- 3.—*Ancient Spanish Ballads, Historical and Romantic; translated, with notes, by J. G. Lockhart.* A new edition, revised. *With an Introductory Essay on the Origin, Antiquity, Character and Influence, of the Ancient Ballads of Spain; and an Analytical Account, with specimens, of the Romance of the Cid.* 8vo. pp. 272. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1842

Spain, from the earliest time, has been a land famous in the annals of chivalry and song. The marvellous adventures of eight centuries of unceasing warfare with the Moors could not fail to furnish the themes, and a rich and musical language the expression, of a national poetry peculiar in its character, and more copious than is found in the literature of all the other nations of Europe combined. She is pre-eminently the land of the ballad. It is the form of poetry best adapted to the genius of her people, and to the circumstances of her history. To this day, amid her high hills and through her luxuriant valleys are chanted a thousand songs, composed in the time when the crescent waved from the towers of Granada—when that impersonation of all that was chivalric and romantic, the Moorish knight—watered his steed by the banks of the Gaudiana, and the Moorish shepherd folded his flocks in the fertile plains of Andalusia. Would that the remembrance thus kept in mind of the deeds of their ancestors could arouse the nation to a sense of its debasement—could revive the spirit of patriotism now smothered in individual prejudice, selfishness, and pride! The present collection of ballads has been long known in this country from individual specimens which have found their way through the press. They are now for the first time presented to the public collectively by Wiley & Putnam, who have published them in a style worthy of the subject. These ballads are not merely interesting as poetry, but they are also valuable as historical records, and as illustrative of the manners and customs of the times. The selection of ballads has been of course made with taste, and all the critics agree as to the remarkable spirit, fidelity and energy, with which they have been translated. Mr. Hallam, the author of “The Literature of the Middle Ages,” and himself a profound critic, says that “the originals themselves are known to our public; but generally, with inconceivable advantage, by these very fine and animated translations.”

- 4.—*Report in Favor of the Abolition of the Punishment of Death; made to the Legislature of the State of New York, April 14th, 1841, by JOHN L. O’SULLIVAN.* 8vo. New York: J. & G. H. Langley. 1841.

We believe that no man having the slightest pretensions to common sense and the ordinary feelings of humanity can rise from the perusal of this able and interesting report without a thorough conviction of the propriety, and in fact the necessity, of an immediate repeal of the laws authorizing the punishment of death. A great and growing repugnance in the public mind to the operation of this most detestable provision of our criminal code has long been manifest—a repugnance founded in the best feelings of our nature, and the natural result of a diffusion of the principles of Christianity, and a consequent humanizing progress in civilization and refinement. This feeling, however, has by many been admitted with much hesitation and suspicion. An idea that a form of punishment sanctified by universal custom through all time must have some strong and good reasons for its preservation in the present day, has hitherto prevented many from expressing their feelings upon the subject who would otherwise have been clamorous for reform. To such Mr. O’Sullivan has rendered essential service. He gives them a reason for the half-formed faith that is within them, and a justification of the horror which a contemplation of the subject excites. He sweeps away every support of this product of a barbarous and ignorant age, and furnishes the most conclusive arguments, founded both on principle and expediency, in favor of its abolition. The subject will be brought up before the legislature this winter, and will no doubt meet with the attention that it so justly deserves.

- 5.—*Spring and Summer. Autumn and Winter. The Juvenile Naturalist.* By B. H. DAAPER. 2 vols. 234 and 227 pp. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

Parents who are in search of really valuable gifts for their little ones cannot do better than to take these books. They charm the eye, feed the mind, and enrich the heart. Full of excellent wood cuts, the path of knowledge is made alluring: breathing naturally the finest moral sentiment, the young affections are not left unsatisfied. They are worth whole cargoes of toys—whole libraries of gilded and empty annuals. We are sorry to detect a little bad grammar in them.

6.—*Visit to Northern Europe ; or Sketches, Descriptive, Historical, Political and Moral, of Denmark, Sweden, Norway and Finland, and the Free Cities of Hamburg and Lubeck.* By ROBERT BAIRD. 2 vols. 12mo. New York: John S. Taylor & Co. 1841.

Two very interesting and useful volumes, evincing much talent, industry, and observation. The notices of the manners and customs, commerce, manufactures, arts and sciences, education, literature and religion, of the countries indicated in the titlepage, are full, and evidently accurate. The work is written in an unpretending but excellent style. It is illustrated with several maps, and embellished with numerous wood engravings. It is not a work of travels properly so called, made up merely of accounts of what the author heard and saw in the countries under consideration, and of his intercourse with the various classes of persons with whom he came in contact ; but it is, as the author says he intended it to be, a book containing as much useful information respecting the countries of which it treats as could be conveniently exhibited in the compass of two volumes, and as little about the personal adventures of the author as would be consistent with giving to it some degree of connection and unity. The engraved illustrations are beautifully executed, and the general mechanical appearance of the work highly creditable to the publishers.

7.—*Pocahontas ; and other Poems.* By MRS. L. H. SIGOURNEY. pp. 284. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Like all who are in the habit of writing constantly, on trivial as well as on great occasions, to meet the demands of a weekly paper as well as to pour out the inspiration of a fervid soul, Mrs. S. has written a great deal which, for her own credit, it is well will soon be forgotten. Not so the volume before us. Judiciously selected, it is a wreath of her choicest flowers, that deserved thus to be set as apples of silver in a frame of gold. The "leader," Pocahontas, is one of the richest efforts of the American muse ; and unquestionably will enjoy as wide a circulation and as enduring a fame as the language it has employed with such beauty and power. Many other exquisite things, scattered through the volume, establish its claim to a permanent place among our best literature ; though occasionally, we find cause to regret that the peculiarities of one denomination should so frequently intrude themselves. Mrs. S. has now done justice to herself: let the public see to it that they do justice to her.

8.—*The American Almanac, and Repertory of Useful Knowledge, for the year 1842.* 12mo. pp. 328. Boston: David H. Williams.

The present volume forms the thirteenth from the commencement of publication, and the third of the second series of ten volumes. The judicious arrangement of the astronomical department, by Mr. Paine, has been retained by the new editor, Mr. Pierce, without any important alterations. It comprises the astronomical, statistical, and miscellaneous information that so eminently characterized those which preceded it. The present volume will be found particularly interesting, embracing, as it does, an abstract of the census or enumeration of the inhabitants of the United States, for 1840. The vast amount of statistical and other information contained in this almanac give to it a standard and permanent value, as a work of reference, in all time ; and it is probably as accurate in its details, and as free from typographical errors, as it is possible to render a work requiring so much care in the compilation.

9.—*The Poems of Ossian.* Translated by JAMES MACPHERSON, Esq. To which are prefixed, a Preliminary Discourse and Dissertations on the Era and Poems of Ossian. New York: C. Wells. 1841.

Ossian will remain for ever a favorite with but a limited portion of the public, who, with Napoleon at their head, loving his romantic melancholy, his deep pathos and bold imagery, will make almost their whole poetical literature out of him. We regret to see an edition loaded down with the stupid and pointless criticisms prefacing this. Unquestionably there was some actual basis for these ancient lyrics: in 1807, the Highland Society published the Gaelic originals of fourteen Ossianic poems. Unquestionably too, Macpherson entirely re-modelled such traditions—making out of mere ballads stately epics—swelling the grandeur of the incidents in every conceivable way—and leaving to himself the credit neither of a faithful translator nor an original poet. The whole book, though neatly executed, has a school-book air, in violation of all taste. Publishers should understand that a poetical romance is not well dressed in the regimentals of Anthon's classics.

- 10.—*The Correspondence of William Wilberforce*; edited by his sons, ROBERT ISAAC WILBERFORCE and SAMUEL WILBERFORCE. Revised and enlarged from the London edition. 2 vols. 12mo. Philadelphia: Henry Perkins. 1841.

Here is the heart of one of the best of men laid open; one whom all ages will bless, and all eternity honor; one who filled a most conspicuous station in the history of his time, and played a prominent part in those benevolent enterprises which are its glory. Still, the indiscriminate praise with which the collection has been received proves that few have looked beyond the beaming countenance which faces the titlepage, and the delusive preface which follows. We regret for the sake of a name we so heartily revere that a collection of letters, (for the most part feeble, tedious, verbose, hasty, and redeemed from utter barrenness only by devout sentiments and philanthropic impulses,) should be set up as a monument to the memory of William Wilberforce. Though the benevolent heart will not be disappointed of the sincere disinterestedness it ascribed to the great antagonist of the slave trade, though the spiritual eye will see much of heaven in these careless outpourings of soul, the correspondence in general is neither creditable to him whose name it bears nor profitable to the reader. There is hardly one of our eminent men, from Washington down, whose letters are not unspeakably more valuable than these. And the same lethargy of mind which disappoints one in the good man's own letters, seems to taint to a great degree the letters of his distinguished friends. We admire the affection which prompted, but pity the blind partiality which executed this tribute to ascended worth.

- 11.—*The Rhode Island Book; Selections in Prose and Verse, from the Writings of Rhode Island Citizens*. By ANNE C. LYNCH. pp. 352. Providence: H. Fuller. Boston: Weeks, Jordan & Co. 1841.

It is an honorable spirit which moves these gatherings of local genius, but in this case the purpose is better than the deed—the intention than the execution of the work. Printer and editor seem to have conspired together to disappoint the public, mortify hopeful talent, and put the Roger-Williams city in disadvantageous comparison with all who have preceded her in this ingenious way of self-commendation. Where such writers as Burgess, Channing, Hall, Greene, and Wayland are met, cannot be a barren land. Unhappily, the selections are not always well made; and are often sadly cut up to afford room for verses which sink below criticism, and prose which would not signalize an every-day penny-liner. If the editor's threat is fulfilled, and a second volume is summoned out of time into a consumptive life, we trust it may be under different auspices, so as at least to die decently, and find honorable mention after burial.

- 12.—*Elements of Chemistry; containing the Principles of the Science, both Experimental and Theoretical*. By ALONZO GRAY, A. M. 12mo. pp. 396. New York: Dayton & Saxton. 1841.

This volume, illustrated with numerous engravings, is intended as a text book for academies, high schools, and colleges. The compiler is a teacher of chemistry and natural history in the Teacher's Seminary, at Andover, Massachusetts. Most of the works on chemistry are too profound on the one hand for those who are just commencing the study, or too superficial on the other for those who wish to obtain a scientific knowledge of the subject. Mr. Gray has avoided these two extremes, and combined, in an eminent degree, the scientific with the popular and useful parts of the subject. The adoption of the work, in many of our best institutions, is a strong recommendation in its favor. We would particularly commend it to the attention of that portion of the mercantile community who may be engaged in those branches of trade which render a knowledge of this science of practical utility.

- 13.—*The Parted Family, and other Poems; An Offering to the Afflicted, etc.* By MARY S. B. DANA, author of the "Southern Harp." 12mo. pp. 307. New York: Dayton & Saxton. 1842.

The fair author of these poems experienced in the loss of a husband and child a series of the severest afflictions that can penetrate the heart of stricken humanity. They appear to be hastily written, rather under the guidance of excited feeling than of sober reflection; but they breathe throughout a pure and gentle spirit, deeply imbued with the hope reflected from the leaves that unfold to our race the undying realization of immortality in the spirit land. As the natural outpourings of experimental sorrow they will touch the fibres of many a kindred soul, and shed over it a healing balm.

14.—*The Token, and Atlantic Souvenir ; an Offering for Christmas and New Year.* 12mo. pp. 320. Boston: David H. Williams. 1842.

Mr. Williams, the new publisher of this earliest of the American annuals, has succeeded in realizing the high expectations raised when it was announced that it would come out under his auspices, and we have no hesitation in saying that it is equal, at least, to any thing of the kind which has issued from the press of our country. The embellishments would almost lead one to conclude that the art of engraving had usurped the dominion of the painter and the sculptor. The human countenance beams from the paper as from the canvass. The landscape, with its varieties of scenery and circumstances, glows from the book which they illustrate, and even the sculptured statue breathes and speaks in all the relief of light and shade from the purity of the marble page. The literary department surpasses any previous volume ; it contains more than forty articles, from our most popular writers, as Henry W. Longfellow, J. G. Percival, John Pierpont, Charles F. Hoffman, S. G. Goodrich, Isaac McLellan, H. T. Tuckerman, J. T. Fields, F. W. P. Greenwood, Park Benjamin, George Lunt, A. B. Street, Mrs. Gilman, H. F. Gould, Harriette Beecher Stowe, and other well-known authors. It has, we are aware, become fashionable to declaim against the light literature of the day, and particularly that portion of it which appears in this form ; but we do not know where else to find so much that is original in thought, beautiful and varied in style, or pure and elevated in sentiment ; and we fervently hope the publisher will be encouraged to go on in the work of improving this interesting branch of the book trade.

15.—*Gems from the Works of Travellers, Illustrative of Various Passages in Holy Scripture.* 12 mo. pp. 320. New York : D. Appleton & Co. 1841.

This volume will prove highly acceptable to all who venerate the literature or religion of the Bible, as it serves to illustrate many passages full of importance and beauty, but not generally understood, because they contain allusions to manners and customs familiar to those for whom they were originally written, but which are imperfectly known to us. The volume consists of extracts from the narratives of travellers who have recorded the customs of the oriental nations, and as many of those customs are retained among them to this day, such as existed in the times when the scriptures were written, and as their manners are in many instances little changed since the patriarchal times, they will essentially assist the reader to a clearer perception of the propriety and beauty of the illustrations so often drawn from them in the Bible. The numerous engravings are designed to strengthen the force of the text.

16.—*Eastern Arts and Antiquities, mentioned in the Sacred Scriptures ; with numerous illustrations.* 16mo. pp. 400. *Bible Quadrupeds ; the Natural History of the Animals mentioned in Scripture ; with sixteen illustrations.* 16mo. pp. 260. New York: J. S. Redfield. Boston: Saxton & Pierce. 1842.

We know not which of these books to prefer—they are both so excellent. The first named is rather of an older cast—the second adorned with a higher kind of illustrations ; but, published by the enterprising getter-up of the Pictorial Bible illustrations, they are both admirable in matter and style, either for Sunday schools, for family instruction, or youthful pleasure. The “Eastern Arts” has the most religious intelligence—the “Bible Quadrupeds” the most amusing and inviting incident. They are fit companions for each other ; and belong to that high class in the juvenile library which forms one of the most hopeful features of modern literature, and reflects the highest praise upon the wise public spirit which prompted this and kindred publications.

17.—*The History of Michael Kemp, the Happy Farmer's-Lad ; a Tale of Rustic Life, illustrative of the Spiritual Blessings and Temporal Advantages of Early Piety.* By ANN WOODRUFFE. 12mo. pp. 248. New York : Robert Carter.

This is a reprint of a sixth London edition of a popular religious fiction. It is written in a lively, agreeable style. The story is designed to illustrate the passage of holy writ, “that godliness is profitable unto all things, having the promise of the life that now is, and of that which is to come ;” and although relating principally to humble life, its lessons are applicable to individuals moving in higher and other spheres, among whom, it is said, it has had a large circulation. It is imbued with the popular theology to which the author was attached. It is printed in the usually neat style of all the latest publications.

18.—*The Student-Life of Germany*. By WILLIAM HOWITT, author of "Rural Life in England," etc. From the unpublished manuscript of Dr. Cornelius. 8vo. pp. 467. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1842.

We do not, (to adopt the language of the learned translator of this elegantly printed book,) hesitate for a moment to assert that, taken as a whole, it will be found to contain more that is entirely new and curious than any one which has issued from the press for years. The institutions and customs which it describes, form the most singular state of social existence to be found in the bosom of civilized Europe, and what renders them the more curious and worthy of investigation is, that they are no recent and evanescent frolic of eccentricity, but are as fast rooted into the antiquity of German minds and manners as the universities themselves. They have been modified and softened by time and advancing refinement, but are not a whit nearer being rooted out, apparently, than they were three hundred years ago. This state of things is depicted in the volume before us, by a German himself, who passed through it; and with that peculiar feeling and appreciation which a German only can possess. It has been translated by Mr. Howitt, under the author's own eye, as it was written; and as he was acquainted with the English language, it may be presumed to give a faithful transcript of his thoughts. It presents a very amusing and agreeable picture of the student-life of Germany, and will doubtless find among our own university graduates and collegians a large circle of delighted readers.

19.—*Sketches from a Student's Window*. By S. G. GOODRICH. 12mo. pp. 311. Boston: William D. Ticknor. 1841.

Not one of the annuals is capable of communicating half the pleasure with this exquisite collection of fragments, fables and fantasies, mostly republished from periodical works. We did not believe Old Parley had so much taste, so much variety, so much poetry about him. Neither had we done half justice to his admirable faculty of conveying instruction; his inimitable grace in approaching the youthful mind, his polish of style, or freshness of thought, are worn-out themes. Whether for youthful pleasure or profit, the American press never issued any thing better than this: nay, we challenge the world to even equal this casket of well-set gems by any thing of recent date. Dickinson has surpassed himself in the mechanical execution. This will long be exhibited as a specimen book.

20.—*The Early English Church*. By EDWARD CHURSTON, M.A., Rector of Crayke, Durham. 18mo. pp. 344. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

This handsome volume is designed to exhibit a faithful picture of English church history, and to the admirers of that church in this country it will doubtless prove a very acceptable offering; and may on the whole be considered an interesting and valuable contribution to our adopted religious literature. It is a work of considerable research, and the author is evidently well versed and deeply interested in the subject he has treated with so much learning and erudition. We do not think, however, that the marshalling of the name of the "Right Rev. L. Silliman Ives, D.D., Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the Diocese of North Carolina," on the titlepage, as the author of "a preface" of four pages, adds much to the intrinsic value of the work.

21.—*France; its King, Court, and Government*. By AN AMERICAN. New York: Wiley & Putnam. Second edition. 1841.

A second edition, enlarged and much improved, of this excellent volume, from the pen of Governor Cass, our distinguished minister at the court of France, has been recently published. This announcement, of itself, without reference to the reputation of its talented author, speaks much for the popularity of the work; and our own views of its merits go far to confirm the good opinion thus shown by its numerous readers. A chapter under the head of "Three Hours at St. Cloud," not contained in the first, is appended to the new edition, and forms decidedly the most interesting feature of the work. The book is embellished with a spirited engraving of Louis Philippe, in 1792, as Le Duc de Chartres.

22.—*The New Tale of a Tub; an adventure in verse*. By F. W. N. BAYLEY, Esq.; with illustrations, after designs by LIEUT. J. S. CORRON, engraved on wood by J. J. BUTLER. 8vo. pp. 86. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1842.

This beautiful volume contains a very comical and amusing tale, in smooth and flowing verse, illustrated with seven capital engravings. It is printed on very thick and snow-white paper.

23.—*The Home-Book of Health and Medicine ; a Popular Treatise on the Means of Avoiding and Curing Diseases, and of Preserving the Health and Vigor of the Body to the Latest Period ; including an Account of the Nature and Properties of Remedies, the Treatment of the Diseases of Women and Children, and the Management of Pregnancy and Parturition.* 8vo. pp. 456. Philadelphia: Edward C. Biddle. 1841.

We are not much of an advocate for "medicine made easy," or "every man his own doctor." We believe that the science of medicine is one that requires the uninterrupted exercise of the highest powers of the mind to be thoroughly understood, and that in no instance is the old adage, "a little learning is a dangerous thing," more strictly true. Still there are many cases by land and sea where proper medical assistance cannot be obtained, and where a plain and popular book of reference like the present would be useful. Could it be used only as a work of reference, and applied to only when the emergency arose, it would do unqualified good ; but in many cases it would no doubt only serve to excite that passion for doctoring one's self and others, which, when once aroused, seems to be virulent in proportion to the ignorance with which it is accompanied. The author of this work is a well-known physician in Philadelphia, and evidently a man of sense and experience.

24.—*Gems of the Modern Poets ; with Biographical Notices.* By S. C. HALL. 12mo. pp. 408. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1842.

This volume embraces selections from Wordsworth, Byron, Southey, Moore, Shelley, Coleridge, Milman, Elliot, Lamb, Montgomery, White, Wilson, Crabbe, Scott, Sotheby, Keats, Hogg, Hemans, Cunningham, Hunt, Clive, Norton, Rogers, Landon, Campbell, Proctor, Bowles, Tighe, Wolcot, Pollok, Hood, Dibdin, Joanna Baillie, Tennyson, Howitt, Hervey, and T. H. Bayly. The selections are made with taste, and a just appreciation of the true and the beautiful ; and the biographical notices, in the preparation of which the author possessed rare facilities, as he was favored by the living poets with memoranda, and was personally acquainted with most of them, are clear and comprehensive, and written with the discrimination and judgment that has marked his previous literary labors. The volume is beautifully printed, with the accuracy that characterizes all the publications of Messrs. Carey & Hart.

25.—*Memoirs of the Most Eminent American Mechanics ; also, Lives of Distinguished European Mechanics ; together with a Collection of Anecdotes, Descriptions, &c., relating to the Mechanic Arts.* By HENRY HOWE. 12mo. pp. 462. New York: Alexander V. Blako.

This neatly printed volume embraces well written sketches of the lives of John Fitch, Benjamin Franklin, Oliver Evans, Samuel Slater, Eli Whitney, David Bushnell, Amos Whittemore, Robert Fulton, Jacob Perkins, Thomas Blanchard, and Henry Eckford, all American mechanics ; besides notices of the lives of eighteen of the most ingenious artisans of Europe. It is illustrated with fifty engravings, including a portrait of each of the subjects of the biographies noticed. We cheerfully commend it to the attention of our mechanics as well calculated to excite in them a spirit of emulation, and encourage the talent and perseverance required for a successful cultivation of the mechanic arts.

26.—*Critical and Miscellaneous Essays,* by CHRISTOPHER NORTH, (PROFESSOR WILSON.) In 8 vols. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1842.

To lovers of sentiment and poetry these volumes are altogether acceptable. They abound with that beautiful description, poetical thought, and exquisite diction which "both old men and maidens" loved so well in the "Lights and Shadows of Scottish Life." The criticisms on poetry are perhaps the best part of the volumes ; they are merciful and loving, though discriminating, and usually just. Wilson is no metaphysician, but a poet and a philosopher ; and the deep love of Nature in all his articles redeems them from every appearance of exaggerated sentiment. These essays are true poetry, though without rhyme or metre ; and their publishers receive our thanks for presenting them to us in this convenient and graceful form.

27.—*The Patriarch ; or Family Library Magazine.* Edited by Rev. R. W. BAILEY Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 288. New York: George A. Peters. 1841.

The volume before us embraces the twelve monthly numbers of a periodical commenced in January, 1841. It is neatly bound, with gilt edges and cover, after the manner of the annuals, and embraces a variety of articles in prose and verse, designed to inculcate the purest principles in the most attractive form. It is illustrated with a number of pretty engravings, and would make a very appropriate gift for the season.

28.—*Passaic ; a Group of Poems Touching that River, with Other Musings.* By FLACCUS 12mo. pp. 292. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1842.

A portion of the poetic effusions embraced in this elegantly printed and delicately bound volume, obtained a wide circulation as they appeared singly in the pages of the Knickerbocker Magazine ; and although they have been severely criticized in certain quarters, we are constrained to say that they possess a considerable share of merit. The writer is certainly gifted with many of the requisites of a poet ; his verse runs smoothly, and he has an eye and a heart for the true and the beautiful. Some of the shorter pieces are excellent, and a few passages in the first "group of poems" would not detract from the well-earned fame of our best American poets,—while others sink almost below mediocrity.

29.—*The Christmas Bells : A Tale of Holy Tide ; and other Poems.* By the author of "Constance," "Virginia," etc. 18mo. pp. 221. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

We confess ourselves disappointed, and happily, in the poetic effusions contained in this elegantly printed volume. Here is an American poet, without pretension, modestly concealing his name, who has produced stanzas that would add new laurels to the brow of many of our poets whose names are as familiar as household words. Purity of diction and harmony of versification are here rendered subservient to Christian sympathies and devout feelings, and though tinged with the conservatism of episcopacy, the more republican, but not less devout disciple of the Divine Founder of our faith, will refresh his soul with the delightful musings of a true and faithful heart.

TO OUR SUBSCRIBERS.

In issuing the sixth half-yearly volume of the Merchants' Magazine, duty to the mercantile community and others who have supported it since its commencement, as well as duty to ourselves, requires that we should say something of the past and the future. This magazine was commenced in a time of difficulty and pressure among mercantile and other classes, when usual undertakings would have broken down or have been unsuccessful. Notwithstanding the pecuniary troubles of the times—owing, we flatter ourselves, in some measure to the originality of our work, and its usefulness to that branch of the community for whom it was intended, we succeeded in our efforts, and can now announce to the public that the Merchants' Magazine is fixed on as permanent a basis as any periodical in this country or abroad. We have endeavored in every possible way to collect and furnish information on all mercantile matters, whether relating to domestic or foreign commerce, that could in any way merit the attention of those engaged in trade. Nor to them alone has our magazine been of interest ; we have given statistical tables, monthly, valuable to all portions of the community, and collected by us with great expense and trouble,—a species of information that has never before been furnished by any publication in the United States.

Our arrangements for the ensuing volume are extensive and valuable. It has been seen by our readers that for some time back we have published articles relating to the laws and resources of the different states and territories of the Union. In every case we have availed ourselves of all the official information that could be secured from the fountain head : correctness has been our aim, and in all our publications we shall sustain that position. The merchant, of all others, needs true information in his business ; and the Merchants' Magazine will be the last organ to furnish any thing but facts. As the laws in the different states relating to commercial transactions are altered, we have made such arrangements as will give us the opportunity of furnishing them early to our readers and subscribers. Nor does this relate only to state or United States laws. All foreign laws affecting commercial regulations will be as soon as possible promulgated by us, so that the mercantile community will be saved from unnecessary or conflicting inquiry.

In our commercial law reports we have secured the aid of some of the most distinguished jurists that our country has furnished ; they will come fresh to the merchant from the "mint of mind," the deciders in our courts of admiralty and mercantile law, whose names are synonymous with wisdom and justice.

We have thus announced to the public briefly, our course in the future volume, and feel that we cannot conclude without saying that the statistical information furnished will be, as it has been, under the immediate superintendence of the editor of the Merchants' Magazine, and for its accuracy and usefulness he vouches his personal responsibility.

HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

FEBRUARY, 1842.

ART. I.—THE FALKLAND ISLANDS:

A MEMOIR; DESCRIPTIVE, HISTORICAL, AND POLITICAL.*

INTRODUCTION.

THE southern extremity of the American continent, and the islands in its vicinity, were discovered by Europeans soon after Columbus had ascertained the existence of a new world west of the Atlantic; and during the sixteenth century, the coasts of those territories were frequently examined in search of passages of communication between that ocean and the Pacific. In the course of these examinations, Magellan's Strait was found in 1520, by the navigator whose name it perpetuates; and in 1600, the Dutch sailed into the Pacific, through the open sea further south, around the promontory which they afterward called Cape Horn, in honor of an ancient city of Holland.

For more than a hundred and fifty years after the latter period, these territories scarcely attracted the notice of civilized nations. The Spaniards regarded them merely as useful barriers for the security of their dominions on the Pacific; and as they offered no advantages in the way of commerce or of settlement, they were only occasionally visited by ships of war, or bucaniers, or exploring vessels, in voyages between the oceans which they separate. At length, in 1770, the attention of the whole civilized world was suddenly directed towards a small group of uninhabited islands, situated about 200 miles east of Magellan's Strait, for the possession of which a violent dispute had arisen between Great Britain and Spain; and maps, charts, and geographical works were everywhere consulted, for infor-

* Written for the Merchants' Magazine, by ROBERT GREENHOW, Esq., author of a *Memoir, historical and political, on the Northwest Coast of North America, and the adjacent territories*, published by order of the United States Senate, in 1840.

mation respecting the *Falkland*, or *Sebaldine*, or *Malouine*, or *Malvinas* Islands, by each of which names they had been distinguished in some time or country. With the events which led to this dispute, the political history of the Magellanic regions may be said to have commenced ; for the thousands of pages which had been previously published about them were devoted to accounts, generally as tedious as unsatisfactory, of voyages around their coasts, and fables concerning their inhabitants. That dispute was compromised ; but others of a similar nature, with regard to the same group, have, within the last ten years, arisen between the United States and the Argentine Republic, (better known as Buenos Ayres,) and between the latter republic and Great Britain, neither of which has been settled ; unless the seizure of the islands and their subsequent occupation by Great Britain be considered as deciding them both.

To afford a clear and impartial view of these questions is the object of this present memoir ; in which the author has endeavored to embody all the most material facts relative to the Falkland Islands, in a regular and connected historical narrative, accompanied by reasonings on the various points of national right involved in them. When it is added, that the determination of these questions may seriously affect the American whale and seal fisheries in the Southern and Pacific oceans, and indeed the whole trade of the United States with the countries bordering upon those seas, no further apology will be deemed necessary for this attempt to throw light upon a subject which has been perhaps already too long neglected.

As correct information with regard to the geography of these countries is not generally diffused, before commencing their history it will be convenient to present a brief

DESCRIPTION OF PATAGONIA AND TIERRA DEL FUEGO.

The South American continent is traversed in its whole length, from north to south, by an uninterrupted range of lofty mountains, which are known under the collective names of *Andes* and *Cordilleras*. This range runs throughout nearly parallel to the Pacific coast, and within about two hundred miles from it ; north of the 40th deg. of latitude, the mountains are separated from the Atlantic by a vast expanse of lower country ; south of that latitude the continent becomes much narrower, and its breadth gradually diminishes towards its extremity.

This narrow, southernmost part of America is called *Patagonia*, from the Spanish word *Patagones*, signifying *Big-feet*, which Magellan applied as a characteristic name to its inhabitants. It extends to the latitude of 53 deg. 54 min., in which *Cape Froward*, the southernmost point of the continent, is situated ; further south, extending to Cape Horn, near the 56th parallel, is a group of islands, separated from the continent by Magellan's Strait, and from each other, by intricate channels ; to which group Magellan, believing it to be a continuous territory, and to be filled with volcanoes, gave the appellation of *Tierra del Fuego*, or the *Land of Fire*. The whole western coast of Patagonia is in like manner completely masked by islands ; while on the Atlantic side there are very few, all of which are small, in the vicinity of the main land. Magellan's Strait opens into both oceans, nearly under the same latitude of 52½ deg. ; its course between its two extremities being nearly represented by the letter U. The difficulties, dangers, and uncertainties of the navigation through it are such, that the passage around Cape Horn is almost universally preferred.

These territories are all mountainous ; and the islands may indeed be regarded as prolongations of mountain ridges through the sea. The climate and productions are naturally modified according to distance from the equator and altitude above the sea : the temperature near the coast is, however, in general milder than that of places under the same latitudes in the northern hemisphere ; but, like all other countries near the antarctic circle, they are subject to constant and severe storms. No signs of volcanic eruptions have been found in Tierra del Fuego ; in the northern part of Patagonia, however, are many active volcanoes.

The inhabitants of Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego are, from all accounts, the largest in stature, and the lowest in the scale of civilization, of the human race ; though they appear to possess more intellect than the Australians or the Hottentots. The Europeans who have recently examined Patagonia, have not found among the aborigines any persons who could be styled *giants*. Captain Fitzroy, who spent some time on these coasts, between 1830 and 1835, saw no one exceeding in height six feet and some inches ; though he had “nowhere else met an assemblage of men and women, whose average height and apparent bulk approached those of the Patagonians.” It is however impossible to disbelieve the accounts of Byron, Wallis, Carteret, and Falkner, all of whom positively declare, that they had met with people in this country seven feet in height. Fitzroy describes the Patagonians as “of a rich reddish-brown color, between that of rusty iron and clean copper ; they have thin beards, which, as well as their eyebrows, they carefully remove ; but the hair on their heads is thick, black, straight, and very coarse. Their foreheads are small and low ; their eyes small, black, and ever restless. Their faces are roundish, and the width and projection of their cheek-bones makes them look unusually large. The nose is depressed, narrow between the eyes, but broad and fleshy about the nostrils, which are rather large ; the mouth is large and coarsely formed, with thick lips. Their expression is open and honest, and their intrepid look is prepossessing.”*

As greater space cannot with convenience be devoted to the above mentioned regions, we shall proceed to the

DESCRIPTION OF THE FALKLAND ISLANDS.†

The Falkland Islands, called by the French, *Iles Malouines*, and by the Spanish, *Islas Malvinas*, are situated in the South Atlantic, at the distance

* Captain King carried three of these people, named by the sailors, York Minster, Jemmy Button, and Miss Basket, to England in 1832 ; and after they had remained there two years, they were carried back by Fitzroy to their country. During their stay in England, they soon contracted the language and habits of those by whom they were surrounded, and a remarkable improvement was observed in the expression and *form* of their features : but within a few months after their return to Patagonia, they had again become as complete savages as they had been before their voyage. Fitzroy's work contains many curious particulars relative to these individuals ; and two portraits of each of them, the one taken while in England, and the other after their relapse to barbarism. York Minster is described as irritable, jealous, and ferocious ; Jemmy Button as mild, amiable, grateful, and confiding ; while Miss Basket, who on her return to Patagonia bestowed her hand on York, appears to have been an accomplished flirt.

† Among the works which have been consulted with reference to the subject of this memoir, are :—The collections of voyages and travels of Hakluyt, Purchas, and Churchill ;

of about two hundred miles east from the eastern entrance of Magellan's Straits. They consist of two large islands, called the *East* and the *West Falkland* or *Malouine*, separated by a passage called the *Falkland Channel*, and surrounded by about two hundred other very small islands; all of which lie together within a space of one hundred and twenty by sixty miles, between the 51st and the 53d parallels of south latitude, and between the 57th and the 63d meridians of longitude west from Greenwich, at the same distance from the equator as Ireland in the northern hemisphere. The aggregate surface of the whole group is supposed to be about 3000 square miles in extent; of which surface, the East Falkland appears to embrace nearly one half. The West Falkland was formerly supposed to be the largest of the group; but more recent and accurate examinations have served to show that this supposition was erroneous.

Before proceeding further in the description of these islands, it is proper to observe, that from all accounts and appearances, they were never inhabited or even visited by human beings, anterior to their discovery by Europeans, about the close of the sixteenth century; and that the first attempt to settle on them was made by the French, under Bougainville, in 1764. Since that year they have been occupied occasionally in succession by small parties of English, Spaniards, and people from Buenos Ayres; but their population has never exceeded a hundred and fifty persons, except during a few months in 1765; and no changes have been effected in them, through the agency of man, except such as may have arisen from the introduction by the settlers of cattle, which now cover the larger islands.

By reference to the map it will be seen that the islands are very irregular in outline. The two largest extend parallel to each other in their greatest length, from northeast to southwest, which is also the general direction of the channel separating them; of the other islands, the majority are situated west and north of the West Falkland. The harbors in the group are numerous, and among them are some of the best in all respects on the Atlantic shores. Many of these harbors are channels or portions of sea surrounded by islands; such is the character of *Port Egmont*, on the north side of the West Falkland, on which the British establishment was founded in 1766, and maintained for eight years; it is described by Captain Byron as capable of sheltering the whole British navy from all winds. The other harbors are found in the long arms of the sea, which stretch into the interior of the two large islands from all directions. Among these latter, the principal is *Berkeley Sound*, called by the French *Baie d'Acarron* and *Baie des Français*, about twenty miles in length, and six miles in breadth at its entrance; which runs due west into the East

Burney's *History of Voyages and Discoveries in the Pacific*; the narratives or journals of the voyages made by Frezier in 1706, by Byron, in 1765-7, by Bougainville, 1765-9, by Barnard, 1814, by Weddell, 1823, by Freycinet, 1820, by King, 1830-2, and by Fitzroy, 1834-6; the *Histories of England*, by Belsham, by Hughes, and by Wade; the *Spanish History of the Provinces of Rio de la Plata*, by Fuñes, published in 1817; the *London Annual Register* for 1771, and the parliamentary history for the same year; Dr. Johnson's *Thoughts on the late occurrences respecting Falkland Islands*, published in 1771; *Anecdotes of the life of Lord Chatham*; and many official documents from the governments of England, France, Spain, Buenos Ayres, and the United States.

Falkland on its northeast side. At the extremity of this sound, and connected with it by a narrow passage, is a smaller bay, called *Port Louis*, on which the French, under Bougainville, made their settlement in 1764; the Spaniards succeeded to the possession of this place in 1766, and there built a fortified town called *Soledad*, which they continued to inhabit until about 1810, and then abandoned it. Since that year the place was reoccupied by the Buenos Ayreans, and is now in the hands of the British. Port Egmont and Soledad are the only spots in the whole group on which any attempt has been made to fix a settlement.

The pictures presented by the Falkland Islands on approaching them from any quarter are uninteresting, and the storms which usually prevail in their vicinity give them almost always a dreary appearance. "About the greater part of the archipelago," says Fitzroy, "barren hills sloping towards low and broken grounds, or rocky surf-beat shores, are the only objects which meet the eye. On the West Falkland, and some of the small islands near it, are high precipitous cliffs, in a few places exposed to the western seas; but other parts, and especially the southern shores of the East Falkland are so low, that they cannot be seen from the deck of a vessel five miles distant. The two largest islands are both traversed by ranges of hills or small mountains, of which the most elevated are those in the East Falkland, rising about thirteen hundred feet above the sea; the land on the West Falkland is, however, generally much higher than on the other."

The interior of the East Falkland is much better known than that of any other part of the group. The more elevated portions of it are quartz rocks, among which are found beautiful crystals; lower down is clay-slate, in which are beds of clay and sandstone, containing most curious impressions of shells, leaves, and other organic substances; and still lower, are extensive bogs or fields of peat, varying in depth from two to ten feet. The valleys are many of them covered with vast fragments of quartz rocks, forming in appearance *streams of stones*, which extend for miles in length, and many hundred feet in breadth, from the higher parts of the islands towards the sea; and similar fragments, some of which would no doubt weigh a thousand tons, lie on the tops of the highest hills entirely detached from the rocks underneath.

The temperature of these islands is equable, and, considering their situation, mild. During many years, beginning with 1825, in which meteorological observations were made and recorded near Berkeley Sound, the thermometer never descended below 22 deg., nor rose above 80 deg. of Fahrenheit in the shade; the ordinary range of the mercury being between 30 and 50 degrees in the winter, and between 40 and 65 deg. in the summer. Ice has not been known to exceed one inch in thickness; snow seldom lies on the lowlands, and is rarely more than two inches in depth. The climate on the West Falkland is said to be milder than that of the eastern; yet the seamen of a British vessel, who passed two winters on and near the latter, found no inconvenience from the want of stockings.

There is, however, a great deal of rain at all times in the Falkland Islands; and the winds there seem to be more constant and violent than in any other part of the world. The warmest months, which are January, February, and March, are the most stormy; and there is generally more wind in the day than in the night; "but," says Fitzroy, "neither by night nor by day, nor at any season of the year, are these islands exempt

from sudden and very severe squalls, or from gales which blow heavily, though they do not usually last many hours." The same officer observes, that "winds from the east are rarely lasting or stormy; northerly winds bring cloudy weather, and when very light, they are often accompanied by a thick fog. Gales in general commence in the northwest, and draw or fly around to the southwest; and it may be remarked, that when rain accompanies a northwest wind, it soon shifts to the southwest, and blows hard. Neither lightning nor thunder are common; but when the former occurs, easterly wind is generally expected to follow." With all this rain, falling on a rocky or clayey soil, there can of course be no want of fresh water; and springs and rivulets are to be found everywhere.

All who have remained long in these islands agree in their testimony, in favor of the great healthiness of the country. Fitzroy did not learn, either from observation, or inquiry among the persons whom he met there, that "any disease had been contracted from the influence of the climate, except ordinary colds and coughs, or rheumatic affections, brought on by unusual exposure to the weather."

Notwithstanding these advantages of climate, the Falkland Islands are destitute of trees; and none of the grains, fruits, or other vegetables which serve as food for man, appear to thrive on them. The largest native plants are gummy shrubs, which never exceed five feet in height, nor produce a stick two inches in diameter. Of many thousand trees which have been carried thither from Europe and America, and set out in places supposed to be favorable to their growth, few if any have survived. Wheat sown near Berkeley Sound, and in several other spots, produced large heads, which were, however, found to contain very little farinaceous matter. Good turnips, potatoes, and celery, have been raised at some places; but carrots, lettuce, cabbages, &c., generally run to stalk. The want of wood for fuel is, however, abundantly supplied by peat, which is found in every part of the group, and may be collected without much labor; while timber for building can be procured from the neighboring coasts of South America.

Among the other native vegetables on these islands, are cranberries, and a small plant resembling the heath, from which an infusion may be made, very little if at all inferior, either in taste or in restorative effects, to tea. Fitzroy saw it drank at his table by the officers as *tea*, without their detecting the difference; although the only Chinese tea, used by him at other times, was the best which he could procure at Rio. The *tussac* is a white sweetish substance, something like a chestnut, or the kernel of an unripe fruit, found within the stems of the tall flags or rushes which border the shores of the islands in many places; it is often eaten by the inhabitants, and is much relished by cattle and hogs, to the meat of which it communicates an agreeable flavor: the same name appears also to be given to the peculiar clumps in which the flags or rushes grow. Of the remaining vegetable productions, the principal is the *kelp*, or sea-weed, growing in all the shallow places in the sea, near the shores; from which it is probable that great advantage might be obtained in the manufacture of soda. The fixed weed is easily distinguishable from that which floats; and the former is of great use to navigators, by indicating the existence of shoals.

Although these islands afford no vegetable substances for the direct use of man, they are, on the other hand, covered with luxuriant grasses, admirably adapted for the support of cattle. Before the establishment of the French and British colonies, the only quadrupeds in the whole group

were a species of fox, nearly as large as a wolf, and much more ferocious; the Europeans, however, introduced cows, horses, sheep, hogs, and rabbits; all of which races have multiplied to an extraordinary extent, and have all, except the horses, been materially improved. The wild bulls are said to be the largest and most savage of their species; the average weight of their hides is eighty pounds, which is nearly two thirds greater than that of the hides from Buenos Ayres. The cows give excellent milk, from which butter and cheese of the finest qualities have been made, and the flesh of these animals takes salt perfectly well in the islands. The horses are smaller, and less capable of enduring fatigue, than those about Buenos Ayres; "it is a curious fact," says Mr. Darwin, "that they have never left the eastern end of the East Falkland, where they were first landed, although there is no natural boundary to prevent them from roaming, and that part of the island is not more tempting than the rest."

The shores of the islands were formerly crowded with amphibious animals, of which the principal were seals, and those uncouth monsters called sea-lions, or sea-elephants, and sea-wolves. The numbers of these animals have, however, been greatly diminished, since the islands became the resort of whaling and sealing vessels from all parts of the Atlantic.

The birds are chiefly sea-birds, such as penguins, albatrosses, three kinds of geese, swans, ducks, gulls, &c., though there are also quails, snipe, hawks, rooks, and some other land-birds: their eggs are deposited in such quantities near the shores, that in 1830, "eight men gathered at one place, in four or five days, upwards of *sixty thousand*." The eggs of the penguin are said to be excellent food; they may be kept fresh for several months by immersing them for some time in oil, and then packing them in sand.

These aboriginal animals are remarkably shy, and soon desert any place which is frequented by man; so that it is very difficult to kill them. On this subject, Bougainville, describing the circumstances which accompanied the first settlement made on the islands in 1764, says—"It was singular to see all the animals, which had hitherto been the only inhabitants of the islands, come near us without fear, and show no other emotions than those which curiosity inspires at the sight of an unknown object. The birds suffered themselves to be taken with the hand, and some would come and settle upon the people who stood still. So true it is, that man does not bear a characteristic mark of ferocity, by which mere instinct is capable of pointing out to these weak animals the being that lives on their blood. This confidence was, however, not of long duration with them; for they soon learned to mistrust their most cruel enemies."

The seas and channels about the islands abound in fish, which come there in the beginning of the spring (September) to spawn, and retire on the approach of winter. Those found in the greatest numbers are called mullets, and are described as between a salmon and a mullet, from two to three feet long, and six inches thick; they take salt well, and many cargoes of them have been carried to Buenos Ayres and Rio de Janeiro, where they are preferred to cod; these fish are so numerous, that ten or twelve men have caught and salted *sixty tons* of them in a month. There are moreover, says Fitzroy, "delicious small fish, in such shoals that our boats' crews were sometimes obliged to let a large portion escape from the net, before they could haul it ashore without tearing. In the fresh water ponds, so numerous on the large islands, there is a very delicate fish,

somewhat resembling a trout, which may be caught by angling. The shell-fish are chiefly muscles and clams, both of which are very abundant, and easily gathered at low-water. The large muscles produce pearls of considerable size, though inferior quality."

CHAPTER II.

DISCOVERY OF THE FALKLAND ISLANDS.

The merit of discovering these islands has been claimed by the Portuguese, the Spaniards, the Dutch, and the French. Americus Vespucius, in the journal of his voyage through the South Atlantic Ocean, made in 1502, while he was in the service of Portugal, says that he saw a rugged and uncultivated land beyond the 52d degree of south latitude; but under what meridian it is impossible to learn. The Spaniards assert that the islands were found by their earliest navigators in those seas, who called them, *Islas de Leones*; no direct proof of this assertion has been adduced, but it seems scarcely possible that they could have remained unseen by the people of that nation, during a whole century, in which so many of their squadrons were engaged in exploring the adjacent seas and coasts.

The first notice of the existence of the islands which can be considered as distinct, is contained in the account of the voyage of John Davis, the commander of one of the vessels in the English squadron sent to the Pacific under Cavendish in 1591, written by John Lane, one of the crew, and published at London by Hakluyt in 1600. The writer there states, that after in vain attempting to enter Magellan's Straits, they were on the 14th of August, 1592, "*driven in among certain isles never before discovered by any known relation, lying fifty leagues or better from the shore, east and northerly from the straits.*" This description, though short, is sufficient to establish the fact, that Davis did, in 1592, see some of the north-westernmost of the Falkland Islands; and upon the evidence thus afforded, Great Britain founds her claim to the sovereignty of the whole archipelago.

The same islands were also no doubt seen, two years afterward, by the celebrated Sir Richard Hawkins; in the narrative of whose voyage, by John Ellis, it is stated,* that "*on the 2d of February, 1593-4, we fell in with the land of Terra Australis, in 50 degrees, 55 leagues off the straits of Magellan, east-northeast from the straits.*" Sir Richard, believing himself to be the first who had seen this territory, gave to it the name of *Hawkins' Maiden-land*; "*for,*" as he says, "*that it was discovered in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, my Sovereign Lady, and a maiden Queen, and at my cost, in perpetual memory of her chastity, and of my endeavors.*" This name, however, did not obtain general currency; and the islands were not destined to serve as monuments commemorating the chastity of Queen Elizabeth, or the perseverance and liberality of the dauntless searover.

The last navigator, by whom the discovery of these islands was supposed to have been made, was Sebaldus or Sibbald Van Weerdt, the commander of one of the five Dutch ships sent to the Pacific from Rotterdam in 1599, under Jacob Mahu. Having been foiled in his attempt to pass Magellan's Strait, Van Weerdt resolved to return to Europe; and on his way back, two days after leaving that passage, he fell in with three small

* Purchas' Pilgrims, vol. iv, page 1415.

islands, in the latitude of 50 degrees 40 minutes, distant sixty leagues from the South American continent; which were, in all probability, the same seen by Davis and Hawkins. The Dutch, in consequence, gave the name of *Sebaldine Islands* to the whole archipelago; which is so called on many English maps, published in the last century, while in others it appears as the *Sibble d'Wards Islands*.

The errors of latitude in the above-mentioned accounts, amounting in some to a degree and a half, are not extraordinary, considering the imperfection of the instruments then in use, for determining the altitudes of the heavenly bodies, and the want of proper tables and methods of calculation.

In the course of the ensuing hundred and fifty years, these islands were seen by many navigators of many nations: one of them was probably the same to which Cowley, the bucanier, gave the name of *Pepy's Island*, in 1684, though he placed it in the latitude of 47 degrees 40 minutes, where it was often sought in vain. In 1690, Strong, an Englishman, commanding the *Welfare*, sailed through the passage separating the two largest islands, and called it *Falkland's Channel*, in memory of the well-known royalist, Lucius Cary Lord Falkland, killed at the battle of Newbury, in 1643. Strong's Journal is preserved in the British museum in *manuscript*. From short extracts contained in Fitzroy's Narrative, we learn that Strong saw the land on the 27th of January, near the 51st parallel, and sent a boat on shore to obtain penguins and seals as food for his crew; on the 28th, he entered the sound on the north; and on the 31st, he quitted it, through its southern opening, having landed once or twice on the shores as he passed. This is the earliest visit to the islands of which any account is to be found; and as it forms one of the grounds of the British title to the possession of them, it is not a little strange that the journal should never have been published.

The name of *Falkland Islands* does not appear to have been given to the group before 1745. About the beginning of the last century, they were also seen and visited by French vessels from Saint Malo in Brittany, engaged in fishing, and in the contraband trade with the Spanish coasts of the Pacific; and thus they obtained the name of *Iles Malouines*, which the Spaniards adopted with a slight change, calling them *Islas Malvinas*. The other appellations were in time gradually dropped, and for the last hundred years they have been always styled by the English, Falkland Islands, by the French, *Iles Malouines*, and by the Spaniards, *Islas Malvinas*.

FIRST SETTLEMENTS ON THE FALKLAND ISLANDS.

It has been already mentioned that the Falkland Islands were in all probability never inhabited until 1764; and it does not appear that they seriously engaged the attention of the ruling powers of any civilized nation before that year, except on one occasion.

In 1748, in consequence of the representations made by Commodore Anson, on his return from the Pacific, the British government resolved to establish a colony and military post at some point near Magellan's Strait, in order to afford the means of refuge, refreshment, and repairs, to vessels on their way to or from the Pacific; and two ships were equipped for the purpose of surveying the Falkland Islands, which appeared to offer great advantages for the projected settlement. The court of Madrid, however, became informed of the plan, and remonstrated so strongly against it, that

the expedition was countermanded, and the seals and penguins on the Falkland Islands were left undisturbed for sixteen years longer.

It should here be observed, that *the whole American continent, and the adjacent islands*, (with the exception of Brazil,) *as well as the western part of the Atlantic Ocean, and the whole of the Pacific*, were originally claimed by the Spanish monarchs as their exclusive property, in virtue of the concession made to them by Pope Alexander the Sixth, in his celebrated Bull of Partition issued in 1493, the year after the discovery of the new world by Columbus. Over all these lands and seas, the sovereigns of Spain insisted on exercising absolute control ; and the people of foreign countries were prohibited, under pain of death, from touching the shores or navigating the waters. When however, in process of time, other nations, refusing to recognise the validity of this concession, or to submit to these prohibitions, founded and resolved to maintain establishments in America, the Spanish government endeavored to fortify its title by advancing new claims on the ground of first discovery, which were scarcely less extravagant than those derived from the Papal Bull. The discoveries of the Spaniards in the new world, and the adjacent seas, were certainly extensive and important ; but unfortunately for Spain, the information thus obtained was generally kept secret by her government, with the object of securing all the advantages which might accrue from it ; while the English, the French, and the Dutch, on the contrary, published accounts of their explorations as soon as they had been made. The consequence was, that when disputes arose between Spain and either of the last-mentioned powers respecting the right of sovereignty over territories in America, the Spanish government could only produce, in evidence of priority of discovery by its subjects, bare assertions, or manuscript journals and charts of questionable authenticity, against the undoubted proofs afforded on the other side, by works, which had been printed and open to all, ever since the period of the occurrence of the facts therein stated.

But even when the proofs of first discovery were clearly in favor of Spain, no other powerful nation would submit to be forever excluded from a vast unoccupied territory, merely because some point on its coast might have been first seen by a Spaniard ; and accordingly during the seventeenth century, the English, the French, and the Dutch, planted colonies on the Atlantic side of North America, and in the West India Islands, from which swarms of *free-traders* and *freebooters*, indirectly encouraged by their governments, were sent forth to infest the Spanish American coasts.

Of these contemners of the assumptions and prohibitory regulations of the Catholic monarchs, the most persevering, resolute, and successful, were the English, who in time showed themselves to be no less grasping than the Spaniards ; for in the middle of the seventeenth century, they claimed, in virtue of a few little settlements near the Atlantic, *the whole coast of North America on that ocean, from Florida to Canada, and the whole of the continent thence extending westward to the Pacific*. The Spanish government constantly refused to admit their title to any spot in the new world until 1670, when a treaty was concluded between the two powers, in which it was agreed, that the king of Great Britain and his successors should have and enjoy, with plenary right of sovereignty and property, all territories then possessed by him or his subjects in the West Indies, or in any part of America. This agreement was renewed and confirmed by

the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, in which it was also stipulated, that the ancient limits of the *Spanish West Indies*, and the exercise of navigation and commerce there, should be settled and remain as they were in 1700, at the time of the death of King Charles the Second of Spain. The terms of these conventions were however so vague, that they seemed rather to increase than to lessen the causes of dispute. The meaning of the expression *Spanish West Indies* never could be fixed or defined to the satisfaction of both parties ; it was impossible for them ever to agree as to what were the limits of their respective possessions, or the state of the navigation and trade in that part of the world, at the time of King Charles the Second, or at any other time ; and during the short intervals of peace between the two nations, controversies were daily arising, as to whether a certain British settlement was situated, or a British vessel had been seized, in or out of the limits determined in the treaty of Utrecht.

Questions of this nature have occasioned almost all the wars between Spain and Great Britain since the discovery of America ; and disputes from similar causes arose between Spain and France, and between the latter power and Great Britain. At length, in 1763, treaties were concluded at Paris, which promised to ensure a continuance of peace among those nations. France surrendered Louisiana to Spain, and to Great Britain the remainder of her possessions in North America ; and the Mississippi river (except the southernmost part) became the boundary separating the dominions of Spain from those of Great Britain on that continent. The latter power acquired great additional strength by these arrangements ; but on the other hand, France and Spain were, or were supposed to be, firmly bound together, not only by this removal of causes of dispute, but also by the famous treaty of alliance between their sovereigns, called the *Pacte de Famille*, or *Family Compact*.

In this treaty, which had been devised and carried to conclusion by the energetic Duc de Choiseul, then sole director of the affairs of France, the two sovereigns engaged to consider as their common enemy every power which should become the enemy of either, and they guarantied to each other all their possessions, in every part of the world. Nevertheless, immediately after this re-establishment of peace between Great Britain, Spain, and France, each of those powers engaged in the commission of acts calculated to offend and irritate another. Thus in 1764, the French expelled from Turk's Island (a small uninhabited sand-bank rising above the sea near the north coast of Saint Domingo) a number of English, who were there engaged in collecting salt : the Spaniards endeavored, in like manner, to confine the British mahogany-cutters on the Yucatan coasts within narrower limits than those to which they had been long accustomed ; and the Falkland Islands became, about the same time, the scenes of trespasses, by the British and the French, on the asserted rights of Spain.

After the transfer of Acadie, or Nova Scotia, by the French to the British in 1763, a number of the inhabitants of that country, being unwilling to remain there, were carried to France, where the government was obliged to contribute to their support ; and in order to provide for them, M. de Bougainville, a gentleman of rank and fortune, who had served with distinction in the army in Canada, proposed to transport those who might be willing to go, to the Falkland Islands, and to establish them at some place convenient for vessels engaged in the trade of the Pacific. The minister Choiseul readily entered into the scheme ; and in September of the same

year, Bougainville sailed from Saint Malo with two ships, carrying a few Acadian families as emigrants to the islands. The vessels stopped at Saint Catharine in Brazil, and at the mouth of the Rio de la Plata, where they took on board cattle and other articles for the colony; and after examining several places on the islands, they on the third of February, 1764, anchored in the safe and spacious bay on the northeast side of the East Malouine, which they named *Baie d'Acarron*, now generally called *Berkeley Sound*. Here they landed and took possession of the country for the king of France, burying in various places medals, bearing on one side the words—" *Tibi serviat Ultima Thule*,"—and on the other, an inscription commemorating this appropriation of the territory.

Ere the French had been long on the island, they were subjected to many difficulties, and found many causes of discontent. Their cattle escaped, and only a few of them could be recovered. They had brought only a small supply of provisions, expecting to obtain game in abundance; but after they had killed some of the sea-birds, the others became very shy, and the settlers were obliged to live on seals. The entire want of trees seemed also to present an insuperable objection to their remaining; they however discovered the peat, which proved to be excellent fuel; their chief made voyages to the South American coasts, from which he brought timber for their houses; and with the assistance of the seamen, they soon built a little town and fort, at the western extremity of the bay, to which they gave the name of *Port Louis*. Bougainville having thus planted his colony, sailed to France in June, with a cargo of seal-skins. In the following year he returned to Port Louis, bringing other settlers; after which he again sailed to Europe, leaving the establishment, containing seventy-nine inhabitants, under the charge of M. de Nerville.

These proceedings of the French did not fail to rouse the jealousy of the British government, and the project of forming an establishment on the Falklands or in their vicinity, was revived. Captain Byron, (grandfather of the poet,) who sailed from England in June, 1764, on a voyage of discovery to the Pacific, was accordingly instructed to seek for some spot proper for that purpose; "and whereas," says the preamble to his instructions, "*His Majesty's islands*, called Pepy's Island, and Falkland's Islands, lying within the said track, notwithstanding their having been first discovered and visited by British navigators, have never yet been so sufficiently surveyed as that an accurate judgment may be formed of their coasts and products; His Majesty, taking the premises into consideration, and considering no conjuncture so proper for an enterprise of this nature as a period of profound peace, which his kingdom at present happily enjoys, has thought fit that it shall be undertaken."

The claim to the possession of the islands thus set forth, could only have rested on their supposed first discovery by Davis or Hawkins, and the visit made to them in 1690 by Strong, whose journal was then, and still remains unpublished. The justice of such an assumption of sovereignty on such grounds may certainly be questioned. That a nation, whose subjects have discovered a country, the existence of which was before unknown, should derive from such discovery the right to occupy, and after occupation to exercise sovereignty over the country, may be admitted as a general rule; but this general rule is liable to many difficulties and exceptions in its application, and the right thus derived cannot surely be regarded as subsisting forever to the exclusion of all other nations. It is not always easy to

decide how far a discovery may have been so new and complete as to give a just right of occupation ; or to what extent of country a title of sovereignty may have been acquired by a settlement. History shows that these, like nearly all other questions of national law, have been in each case generally determined according to the interests of the strongest party, without regard to precedent ; and it is not probable that any one principle on the subject will be universally established so long as any part of the earth remains unappropriated by some civilized nation.

In order to exhibit the views of the British government on these points, as officially set forth in 1826, a passage will here be quoted from the *Statement* delivered by Messrs. Huskisson and Addington, the commissioners of that government, to Mr. Gallatin, the plenipotentiary of the United States at London, during the negotiation between the parties relative to the northwest coasts of North America.* “Upon the question how far priority of discovery constitutes a legal claim to sovereignty, the law of nations is somewhat vague and undefined. It is, however, admitted by the most approved writers—that mere accidental discovery, unattended by exploration—by formally taking possession in the name of the discoverer’s sovereign—by occupation and settlement more or less permanent—by purchase of the territory, or receiving the sovereignty from the natives—constitutes the lowest degree of title ; and that it is only in proportion as first discovery is followed by any or all of these acts, that such title is strengthened and confirmed.” Such was the opinion of the British government in 1826 ; and means have already been offered for ascertaining how strong the title of the British government to the Falkland Islands would have been on these principles in 1765.

Agreeably to his instructions, Captain Byron examined the Falkland Islands, and found in them several harbors, to one of which, situated on the north side of the West Falkland, he gave the name of *Port Egmont*, in honor of the Earl then at the head of the admiralty ; it had, however, been visited in the preceding year by Bougainville, who called it *Port de la Croisade*. On the 23d of January, 1765, Byron landed on the shore of this harbor, and “took possession of it and of *all the neighboring islands*, for His Majesty King George the Third of Great Britain ;” after which he pursued his voyage to the Pacific, leaving Captain Macbride in a sloop of war, with orders to survey the archipelago, and then to carry to England the results. Macbride accordingly circumnavigated the group, in the course of which he discovered the French settlement at the Baie d’Accarron, named by him *Berkeley Sound* ; and having warned the colonists to depart from the territories of His Britannic Majesty, he returned to England in the latter part of the year.

Upon the representations of Byron, in favor of the situation of Port Egmont, and the facility of obtaining food there, the British ministers determined to found an establishment on that spot ; and Macbride was immediately sent back for the purpose, with about one hundred persons, in the *Jason* frigate, which reached the harbor in January, 1766. The English, by great exertions, were enabled to get their first habitations completed before the winter ; they were, however, as little pleased with their new place of residence, as the French had been with Berkeley Sound ; and Mac-

* See President Monroe’s Message to Congress, of March 15th, 1823 : page 52.

bride's descriptions of it, as reported by Johnson, were any thing but flattering.*

DISPUTE BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND SPAIN RESPECTING THE FALKLAND ISLANDS.

Thus, in the early part of 1766, a French and an English establishment were existing in the Falkland Islands, the united population of which amounted to about two hundred ;—a greater number of persons than have ever before or since that year been at one time on the archipelago. The right of each of these nations to form such establishments on islands in the ocean, uninhabited and far removed from the possessions of any other civilized power, will scarcely be questioned at the present day ; though the French might have cited precedents in favor of their own title to the exclusive sovereignty of the whole group, by virtue of their prior occupation. The government of Spain, however, clinging to its ancient pretensions, and dreading the invasion of the Pacific by its rivals, determined to resist their attempts to appropriate these islands at the entrance of that sea ; and the prime minister Grimaldi accordingly remonstrated with the courts of Versailles and Saint James, against the continuance of the settlements made by their respective subjects on the territories of His Catholic Majesty.

The Duc de Choiseul, on the part of France, was at first determined not to yield to this requirement ; and an angry correspondence ensued between the two ministers, who at length began to make preparations for war. Louis the Fifteenth, king of France, however, became aware of what was going on ; and being anxious to pass the remainder of his life in quiet, he forbade his minister from proceeding further in the dispute, and wrote himself to his cousin, Charles the Third of Spain, declaring his readiness to withdraw his subjects from the Malouines, provided they should receive indemnification for their expenses from Spain. To this the Spanish monarch readily agreed ; and accordingly on the arrival of Bougainville in France, in the summer of 1766, he was himself despatched by his sovereign to Madrid, where, on the 4th of October following, he signed an engagement to deliver up Port Louis to Spain, on receiving a sum equal to about a hundred and twenty thousand dollars, "being the amount of the expenses incurred by the Saint Malo Company, in founding their *intrusive establishments in the Malvinas Islands belonging to His Catholic Majesty.*" In execution of this agreement vessels were sent to Port Louis, in which the colo-

* "He found what he calls a mass of islands and broken lands, of which the soil was nothing but bog, with no better prospect than that of barren mountains beaten by storms almost perpetual. Yet this, says he, is summer ; and if the winds of winter hold their natural proportion, those who lie but two cables' length from the shore must pass weeks without any communication with it. The plenty which regaled Mr. Byron, and which might have supported not only armies, but armies of Patagons, was no longer to be found. The geese were too wise to stay when men violated their haunts ; and Mr. Macbride's crew could only now and then kill a goose, when the weather would permit. All the quadrupeds which he met there were foxes, supposed by him to have been brought by the ice ; but of useless animals, such as sea-lions and penguins, which he calls *vermin*, the number was incredible."—*Thoughts on the Falkland Islands, by Dr. Samuel Johnson—published in 1771.*

nists were brought back to France : the Spaniards then took possession of the place, changing its name with due solemnity to *Soledad* ; a garrison was fixed there, and the establishment was maintained under the authority of the governor of Buenos Ayres until 1808. It is generally supposed that Bougainville and his settlers were well contented with this arrangement ; as it had become evident that the colony could not support itself, either by agriculture, or by trade, or by furnishing supplies to vessels, or in any other way.

The endeavors of the court of Madrid to prevail on the British government to withdraw its subjects from the Falkland Islands were not successful. Of the discussions between the parties on the subject, nothing is publicly known, except that *such discussions did certainly take place*, though more than one British historian has declared the contrary. There is, however, reason to believe that the representations of the Spanish government were treated with haughty indifference, if not with contempt, by the British ministry ; and that Spain was in consequence reduced to the alternative of yielding to Great Britain rights which she had denied to France, or of employing force to vindicate them. At length, when three years had passed by, without any prospect of a peaceful conclusion of the difficulty, in a manner satisfactory to Spain, it was determined at Madrid that the British should be removed from the Falkland Islands at all hazards ; and operations for that purpose were, in 1769, commenced by Don Francisco Bucareli, the governor of Buenos Ayres, within whose jurisdiction the islands were supposed to be situated. The events which followed this determination will now be presented as they occurred.

In November, 1769, Captain Hunt, of the British frigate *Tamar*, then lying at Port Egmont, observed a Spanish schooner engaged in surveying the entrance of that harbor, and ordered her away. A few days afterward the same schooner re-appeared, bringing a small present of refreshments from the governor of *Soledad*, (the Spanish port on Berkeley Sound,) to Captain Hunt, together with a letter, in which the governor expressed his surprise, that a vessel belonging to His Catholic Majesty should have been ordered to quit a Spanish sea, and that subjects of a friendly nation should have settled on a Spanish island ; concluding by a summons to the British, in civil though positive language, to evacuate the place. Captain Hunt replied in the same tone and manner ; asserting the right of his own sovereign, founded on discovery and settlement, to the possession of the islands, which he warned the Spaniards to quit within six months. Other letters to the same effect passed between the two officers, through the medium of the Spanish schooner ; and at length, in February, 1770, two Spanish frigates appeared at Port Egmont, the commander of which repeated the summons to the British, and received the same answers as had been given to the governor of *Soledad*.

Upon the departure of these vessels, Captain Hunt sailed for England, where he arrived on the 3d of June, and communicated what had taken place to the ministry. In the course of the ensuing summer, information was also received from Mr. Harris, the British chargé d'affaires at Madrid, that extraordinary activity prevailed in the naval arsenals of Spain ; and it was afterward, about the 12th of September, distinctly ascertained, and admitted as true by the Spanish ambassador at London, that a squadron had been despatched from Buenos Ayres for the purpose of dislodging the

settlers at Port Egmont. All these circumstances were kept secret by the British ministry : nevertheless rumors of the existence of difficulties, and of a prospect of war with Spain, became current throughout the kingdom ; and eminent members of both houses of parliament, among whom was Lord Chatham, openly expressed their belief, that a blow was about to be struck by Spain against the British in some part of the world.

To return to the Falkland Islands.

On the 4th of June, 1770, the Spanish frigate *Industria*, commanded by Don Juan Ignacio Madariaga, general of marine, entered Port Egmont ; and two days afterward, four other ships of the same class and nation were anchored in the harbor before the little town. The only British vessel there was the sloop of war *Favorite*, of sixteen guns, commanded by Captain Maltby ; and the only fortifications on the land were a block-house and a mud-battery, mounting together four twelve-pounders. The number of persons belonging to the establishment was about a hundred and twenty ; the *Favorite*, however, had on board, in addition to her own crew, that of the sloop of war *Swift*, which had been a short time previous wrecked on the South American coast ; so that the English could have mustered in all about four or five hundred men.

As soon as the last-arrived Spanish ships had anchored, Captain Farmer, the acting governor of the colony, ordered the captain of the *Favorite* to take a position nearer the shore, for the defence of the town ; but when the latter attempted to obey this order, two shot were fired over him from the frigates, and he was in consequence obliged to remain quiet. The British captains then wrote to the Spanish commodore, requesting him to depart, as soon as he should have obtained the necessary refreshments ; in answer to which, they received a letter from Madariaga, informing them—that he had come with a very large force, comprising fourteen hundred men, besides the crews of his vessels, and with an ample supply of artillery and ammunition, with orders from his government to expel the British from the islands ; and that unless they prepared immediately to depart, he would oblige them to do so, and they would be themselves answerable for the consequences. With this summons Farmer refused to comply, and he continued his preparations for defence ; on seeing which, Madariaga addressed to him another letter on the 9th, declaring that unless within fifteen minutes after its receipt he should give evidence of his readiness to abandon the islands, an attack would be commenced on him by sea and by land. The British, however, persisted in their determination not to yield, until the Spaniards had landed and opened their fire ; when, upon finding all attempts at resistance vain, Farmer proposed terms of capitulation, to which the commodore assented ; and the place was accordingly occupied by the Spaniards on the 10th of June. The settlers were embarked on board the *Favorite*, and allowed to take with them such property as they chose to carry away ; the remainder being left under inventory in the storehouse of the place ; and this business having been completed, the sloop of war sailed for England on the 14th of July.

British historians have lavished ridicule on the Spaniards for sending so large an armament against a force so trifling as that at Port Egmont. But in the first place the Spaniards might reasonably have expected to find a British squadron in the harbor ; and moreover, it was material to prevent resistance on the part of the settlers, because if blood had been

shed on the occasion, war between the two nations would inevitably have followed.

The Favorite, bringing the settlers and the news of their expulsion from the Falkland Islands, reached England on the 22d of September, 1770; and the whole people of that kingdom were immediately thrown into a fever of indignation against the Spaniards. The secretary of state, Lord Weymouth, addressed to the court of Madrid demands for *the instant restoration of the colonists to Port Egmont, and for reparation of the insult offered to the dignity of the British crown*, by their forcible removal from that place. To these demands the Spanish court at first gave evasive answers, endeavoring to change the question at issue into one respecting the right of sovereignty over the islands. Lord Weymouth, however, refused positively to discuss that or any other matter, until the restoration and satisfaction which he demanded had been made; and the preparations for war which had been already commenced, were prosecuted with vigor. After some further correspondence, Prince de Maserano, the Spanish ambassador at London, declared himself authorized to say, in the name of his sovereign, that *no particular orders* had been given to the governor of Buenos Ayres on this occasion, though that officer had acted agreeably to his *general instructions and oath* as governor, and to the general laws of the Indies, in expelling foreigners from the Spanish dominions; and that he was ready to engage for the restoration of the British to Port Egmont, without however ceding any part of His Catholic Majesty's claim to the Falkland Islands; provided the king of England would in return disavow the conduct of Captain Hunt in ordering the Spaniards away from Soledad, which, he asserted, had led to the measures taken by Bucareli. To this the British minister simply replied, that his sovereign could not receive, through a *convention* and under *conditions*, the satisfaction to which he considered himself justly entitled, for the attack on his rights and dignity by Spain; and after this answer little hope of an accommodation of the difficulties was entertained on either side.

At the commencement of the ensuing session of parliament, on the 13th of November, the king in his speech declared—that by the *act of the governor of Buenos Ayres*, in forcibly seizing one of his possessions, the honor of his crown, and the security of his people's rights, had been deeply affected; but that he had not failed to make an immediate demand for satisfaction, such as he had a right to expect from the court of Spain, and to direct the preparations necessary for enabling him to do himself justice, in case his requisition should fail in procuring it from that power. In the debates on the *address of thanks* in return for this speech, it seems to have been assumed as certain, that the ministers had accepted, or would accept, the disavowal by the king of Spain of the acts of the governor of Buenos Ayres, as sufficient satisfaction for the insult to the crown of Great Britain; and the opposition on these grounds commenced a violent attack on the party in power. It would be difficult to produce a series of invectives more bitter than those which compose the speech of Lord Chatham on this subject, delivered in the house of peers on the 22d of November. "The ministry," says his lordship, "have, without declaring themselves explicitly, taken pains to possess the public with an opinion, that the Spanish court have constantly disavowed the proceedings of their governor; and some persons have been shameless and daring enough to advise His Ma-

jesty to support and countenance such an opinion, in his speech from the throne. Certainly there never was a more odious, a more infamous falsehood imposed on a great nation. It degrades the king's honor—it is an insult to parliament. I repeat, that the court of Spain's having disavowed the act of their governor, is an *absolute and palpable falsehood*. The king of Spain disowns the thief, while he leaves him unpunished, and profits by his theft." In the sequel, the orator accused the ministry of incompetence and treachery, and branded the whole Spanish nation as mean, crafty, and faithless. No resolution was however taken in the legislature, calculated to bind the ministers, or to prescribe the course which they should pursue,

In the mean time, the king of Spain, after the rejection of the proposition made by his ambassador, had appealed to his cousin of France for aid, in virtue of the Family Compact, in resisting the attempts of the British to deprive him of a territory which had been formerly admitted by France to belong to him. As Louis the Fifteenth interfered but rarely in the concerns of his kingdom, this communication was referred to the Duc de Choiseul, who opened a confidential communication with the British minister of state, and endeavored to prevail on him to cede the point at issue with Spain, in the same manner as France had, in 1776. This, however, Lord Weymouth positively refused to do; whereupon, Choiseul ventured to declare to the court of Madrid, that France would, if necessary, support Spain in a war with Great Britain. King Charles the Fourth, on receiving this declaration, summoned a council of ministers on the 27th of December; and it was then determined, that the offer already made to the court of London by Prince Maserano, should be repeated, and that if this *ultimatum* were rejected, war should be immediately declared.

Before that day, however, important changes had taken place in the composition of the cabinets of London and of Versailles.

On the 21st of December, Lord Weymouth, after endeavoring in vain to induce his colleagues in the ministry to adopt a decisive course towards Spain, resigned his office, and was succeeded by Lord Rochford, who was inclined to make sacrifices for the sake of preserving peace. About the same day, King Louis the Fifteenth having been made fully aware by the representations of his mistress Madame Dubarry, and the other enemies of Choiseul at Versailles, that he was about to be plunged into a war with England, suddenly dismissed and banished his minister; and on the 24th of the month, he despatched an autograph letter to the king of Spain, declaring his resolution to maintain pacific relations with the other powers if possible. The receipt of this letter of course destroyed all idea of going to war on the part of His Catholic Majesty, who immediately wrote to King Louis, entreating him to take the whole matter into his own hands, and to act as if it were his own case; "remembering only that he had the honor of the Spanish monarch in his charge."

King Louis, being thus fully empowered, renewed the secret negotiation with the British government; which was conducted by M. François, the secretary of the French embassy at London, on the part of France,* and

* Count de Guisnes, ambassador of France at London, was at the same time engaged in a *regular and ostensible* correspondence on the subject with the British ministry, and is believed to have been entirely ignorant of the other and *real* negotiation carried on through his secretary; who, it may be added, is reported to have employed the

by Mr. Stuart Mackenzie on the other side ; and after a number of difficulties, on points of diplomatic etiquette, as well as on others more important, had been removed, the business was brought to a conclusion, on the 22d of January, 1771, the day of the meeting of parliament at London.

On that day, the Spanish ambassador presented to the British secretary of state a *declaration*, to the effect that—His Catholic Majesty, considering the desire with which he is animated for peace, and for the maintenance of good harmony with His Britannic Majesty, and reflecting that the *violence* committed on the 10th of June previous, in obliging the commander and subjects of His Britannic Majesty to evacuate Port Egmont, in the Falkland or Malvinas Islands, might interrupt this peace and good harmony, *has seen with displeasure the expedition* thus tending to disturb them, and *does disavow the said violent enterprise* ; and His Catholic Majesty engages to cause things to be restored *at Port Egmont* to the state in which they were before the said 10th of June, and to give up *that port and fort*, with all the property seized in it, to the person authorized by His Britannic Majesty to receive them. The ambassador however, at the same time, declares in the name of his king, that this engagement to restore *Port Egmont*, “*cannot nor ought in any way to affect the question of the prior right of sovereignty of the Malvinas Islands, otherwise called Falkland’s Islands.*” Lord Rochford, at the same time, presented to Prince Maserano a *counter-declaration*, in which—without *noticing in any way the reservation respecting the sovereignty of the Falkland Islands, contained in the other paper*—he simply recapitulates the remainder of the points therein touched, and ends by declaring in the name of His Britannic Majesty, “*that he will look upon the said declaration of Prince de Maserano, together with the full performance of the said engagement, as a satisfaction for the injury done to the crown of Great Britain.*”

These two papers, though each signed by one party only, cannot be separated in reasoning on their contents ; but must be considered in effect as one convention admitted by both parties. For it is not to be supposed, that the Spanish ambassador delivered his declaration without an entire knowledge of the answer which he was to receive ; or that either paper was signed until it had been fully approved by the parties to which it was to be delivered. If this view be allowed—and the burden of proof to the contrary must certainly rest on those who oppose it—the silence of the British minister with regard to the reservation made by the Spaniards, amounts at least to a direct acknowledgment on his part, that the fact of the restitution of Port Egmont was not to be considered as a surrender by Spain of her right of sovereignty over the Falkland Islands, which right was to remain the same as it had been before that restitution. It will hereafter be shown, that this view of the arrangement was certainly, though indirectly, supported by the ministers who concluded it ; while their opponents considered that the claim of Great Britain to any part of the islands had been virtually abandoned.

The declaration and counter-declaration were communicated by the British ministers to parliament, on the 25th of January, 1771 ; and it may be here mentioned, that *they were the only portions of the correspondence*

information possessed by him to his own personal advantage, by speculating largely in the British funds.—See *Anecdotes of the Life of Lord Chatham*, Chapter for many curious particulars relative to this affair.

between the two nations on this subject which have ever been made public. Whilst they dissipated the fears entertained by a great mass of the people who were anxious for peace, the ministers were on the other hand severely reprobated for the arrangement, by many persons both in and out of parliament, who were, or chose to appear, exceedingly jealous of the national honor. In the house of peers, Lord Chatham pronounced the whole transaction "an ignominious compromise, securing neither satisfaction nor reparation;" insisting that "the right was not secured, and that even the restitution was incomplete, as *Port Egmont alone was restored, and not the Falkland Islands.*" His lordship moreover moved, that the judges should be required to declare, whether in their opinion the British crown could hold any possessions or territories otherwise than in sovereignty; and whether the declaration of the Catholic king could be accepted and executed, without derogating from the inherent and essential dignity of that crown. In the house of commons, Messrs. Dowdeswell and Pownal (formerly governor in succession of New Jersey, Massachusetts, and South Carolina,) introduced resolutions censuring the ministers for their whole course in the business; and the measures of the government were examined and criticised with asperity by those gentlemen, as well as by Burke, and other members of the opposition. The ministers nevertheless, by means of their great majorities in both houses, defeated these and all other attempts of their opponents to embarrass them, and they carried their address to the king approving the arrangement, though a long protest against it was signed by nineteen peers.

Among the attacks directed against the ministers on account of their arrangement with Spain, from without the doors of parliament, the most severe and celebrated was that contained in a letter from *Junius*, dated January 30th, 1771. The *Great Unknown* there placed the results of the transaction in contrast with the determinations expressed by the ministers at its commencement, in the king's speeches, and on the floors of the legislative houses; and he accuses Lord North and his colleagues of treachery, in not having taken advantage, as they might, of the distraction of affairs in France, and the aversion of King Louis from war, to force a dissolution of the union between that power and Spain. Lord Rochford is unmercifully ridiculed for the barbarous French in which the counter-declaration is written; and *three lines* from the authentication of that document are quoted, in which are *seven* instances of false grammar.

On the other side, Dr. Samuel Johnson published his pamphlet, entitled *Thoughts on the late transactions respecting Falkland's Islands*; it was composed under the direction of Lord North, from materials furnished by the ministers, and has no doubt brought those islands to the notice of thousands, who would otherwise have remained ignorant of their existence. The work contains a general description of the islands, a narrative nearly correct of the principal events connected with their discovery and settlement, and a brief account of the negotiation just concluded respecting them; interspersed with reflections on the miseries occasioned by war, and also with piquant invectives against the leaders of the opposition, and their unknown champion *Junius*. The writer endeavors to show that the islands were of no value to Great Britain, and that her claim to them was by no means indisputable; that the satisfaction received from Spain was sufficient; and that it would have been unjust to insist upon a direct engagement, on her part, to abandon her title to the territory, as it might prove a

precedent for more important spoliations by others. The reasoning is not always conclusive, and the general tone of the paper is rather expostulatory than argumentative; it being intended rather to make the reader content with what had been done by the ministers, than to convince him that they had effected all which could or should have been done. It is beautifully written, and may be read with advantage by every one. In the philippic portions, the prejudices of the author against the opposers of monarchical prerogatives break forth; but each line of the remainder exhibits the effects of that spirit of universal philanthropy by which his views on all subjects were chiefly directed.

As the work above mentioned may be considered in the light of a semi-official announcement of the opinions of the ministers who concluded the arrangement with Spain, some extracts from it may be introduced with propriety.

After recapitulating the substance of the declaration and counter-declaration, Johnson says:—"This is all that was originally demanded. The expedition is disavowed, and the island is restored. *The Spaniards have stipulated that the grant of possession shall not preclude the question of prior right*; a question which we shall probably make no haste to discuss, and a right of which no formal resignation was ever required. This reserve has supplied matter for much clamor, and perhaps the English ministry would have been better pleased, had the declaration been without it. But when we have obtained all that was asked, why should we complain that we have not more? when the possession is conceded, *where is the evil that the right which that concession supposes to be merely hypothetical, is referred to the Greek calends for a future disquisition?*

"To push advantages too far, is neither generous nor just. Had we insisted on a concession of antecedent right, it may not misbecome us, either as moralists or politicians, to consider what Grimaldi [the Spanish minister] could have answered. We have already, he might say, granted you the whole effect of right, and have not denied you the name. We have not said that the right was ours before this concession, but only that *what right we had is not by this concession vacated.*

"Whether the ministers might not equitably have demanded more, is not worth a question. The utmost exertion of right is always invidious; and where claims are not easily determinable, is always dangerous. We asked all that was necessary, and persisted in our first claims, without mean recession, or wanton aggravation.

"The question of right was inexplicable and endless. The ministers left it as it stood. To be restored to actual possession was easily practicable: this restoration they required, and obtained."

These passages—and many others to the same effect may be found in Johnson's pamphlet—show conclusively *that the British ministers did not, in 1771, deny that they had admitted the reservation of right made by the Spaniards in their declaration.*

In execution of the engagements contained in the Spanish declaration, an order was issued by the court of Madrid, on the 7th of February, 1771, for the immediate restitution of Port Egmont, with all the property which had been seized there in the preceding year, to the persons appointed by the British government to receive them; and agreeably to this order, the place was formally delivered, on the 16th of September following, by the

Spanish commandant Orduna, to Captain Stott of the British frigate *Juno*, who had been sent with three ships of war to resume the possession.

A rumor had however in the mean time become current, and generally credited, that on the conclusion of the arrangement between the two governments, the British ministers had secretly engaged to give back Port Egmont to Spain, or at least to withdraw all British forces from the place within a short period after it should have been formally restored according to the terms of the declaration. A hint of the existence of such a secret agreement appears in the letter of Junius above mentioned, and it was distinctly brought forward as most probable by Pownal, on the 5th of March, 1771, in his speech supporting his motion for censuring the ministry. After reviewing the grounds maintained by the Spanish government, and the claims and pretensions set forth in the declaration, Pownal insists that, "to permit the Spanish court to reason upon any such grounds—to admit any such data in negotiation—not to obviate by any contravention or protest those provisions and doctrines—was, as far as was in the power of the ministry, *in effect to recognise these claims and pretensions*, [to the exclusive sovereignty of South America, and the islands in the adjoining seas, and the exclusive navigation of those seas,] *to give up the right to Falkland's Island, and to disclaim all right in us to make any settlement in those parts*; and whatever may be the present ostensible form of the convention, mark well the end—it will end on our part, either *in the actual cession of the island, or in a gradual dereliction of it*. Without some such idea as this—namely, that *as soon as reparation is made to our honor, for the violent and hostile manner in which we were driven off that island, and as soon as we were put in a situation to evacuate it of our own motion, it is tacitly understood we are to cede it*—without some such idea as this, the whole of the negotiation is inexplicable and unintelligible; but taking this line as going to a matter mutually understood, the whole is plain, definite, and but of one construction." To this direct charge, made by an influential member, no answer whatever was given on the part of the ministers, whose silence on such an occasion is certainly calculated to confirm the supposition, that it was not without foundation.

The belief that such a secret engagement to evacuate Port Egmont *was* made by the British government, in January, 1771, has been distinctly affirmed by all the British as well as Spanish historians,* who have de-

* See the histories of England by Belsham, Miller, Coote, Hughes, and Wade; and the *Anecdotes of the Life of Lord Chatham*, in which are contained many curious circumstances relative to the dispute. In the latter work, chapter 39, we find the following account of the conclusion of the affair.

"While Lord Rochford was negotiating with Prince Maserano, Mr. Stuart Mackenzie was negotiating with M. François. At length, about an hour before the meeting of parliament, on the 22d of January, 1771, a declaration was signed by the Spanish ambassador, under French orders, and a French indemnification for the restitution of Falkland's Islands to His Britannic Majesty; but the important condition upon which this declaration was obtained, was not mentioned in the declaration. This condition was, that the British forces should evacuate the Falkland Islands as soon as convenient after they were put in possession of Port and Fort Egmont; and the British ministry engaged, as a pledge of their sincerity to keep that promise, that they would be the first to disarm.

"These facts are confirmed by Count de Guines, in his memorial against Mes-

scribed these transactions. It is moreover strongly supported by the facts, that in 1772 the British force in the Falkland Islands was reduced to one small vessel, with about seventy-five men, and that in 1774, the islands were entirely abandoned by the British; and it is still further confirmed by Johnson, who, in an edition of his pamphlet published after this abandonment, presents a dismal picture of the island and of the miseries sustained by the garrison during its occupation; adding, "to all this the government has now given ample attestation, for the island has been since abandoned, and perhaps was kept only to quiet clamors, with an intention, not then wholly concealed, of quitting it in a short time."

Upon reviewing all the circumstances connected with these transactions, there appears to be no reasonable ground for doubting that the British government *did* promise to withdraw its subjects from the islands, within a short time after they should have been surrendered by Spain according to her engagements. On the other hand, Lord Palmerston, the British secretary for foreign affairs, in a letter (hereafter mentioned) on the subject of the Falkland Islands, addressed, in 1834, to the envoy of Buenos Ayres at London, produces a number of extracts from official documents remaining in the archives of his department, which, he conceives, "*afford conclusive evidence that no such secret understanding could have existed.*" The parts of this letter relating to the question now under examination will here be noticed.

With regard to the documents cited by Lord Palmerston, it will be observed in the first place, that they are, with the exception of the declaration, the counter-declaration, and the order from the court of Madrid for the restitution of Port Egmont, merely extracts from communications which passed between the British ministers and their *own* envoys or agents; and that among the whole, there are very few which throw, or could have been expected to throw, any light whatsoever on the question. It is not easy to divine for what purpose his lordship could have cited the three papers above indicated, or the three lines addressed to the British chargé d'affaires at Madrid, accompanying the declaration and counter-declaration, immediately after their exchange; or Lord Rochford's letter to the

sieurs Tort, Roger, and Depelch, who had charged him with gambling in the English funds.

"During the month of February, 1771, the Spanish minister at Madrid hinted to Mr. Harris, (chargé d'affaires of Great Britain,) the intention of the Spanish court to require of the British ministry a perfection of engagements, as they were mutually understood. Mr. Harris's despatch, containing this hint, was received by the ministry on the 4th of March. Three days afterward a Spanish messenger arrived, with orders to Prince Maserano, to make a positive demand of the cession of Falkland's Islands to the king of Spain. The Spanish ambassador first communicated his information of these orders to the French ambassador, with a view of knowing if he would concur with him in making the demand. On the 14th, they held a conference with Lord Rochford on the subject. His lordship's answer was consonant with the spirit he had uniformly shown. In consequence of this answer, messengers were sent to Paris and Madrid. The reply from France was civil, but mentioned the Family Compact. The answer from Spain did not reach London till the 20th of April. In the mean time, the ministers held several conferences with Mr. Stuart Mackenzie. The result of the whole was, the English set the example to disarm, and Falkland's Islands were totally evacuated and abandoned in a short time afterward, and have ever since been in the possession of the Spaniards."

lords of the admiralty, detailing the arrangements to be observed in the re-occupation of Port Egmont ; or the report on the conclusion of that business made by Captain Stott to the admiralty ; or the despatch from the British ambassador at Madrid, saying that he had conveyed the intelligence of the restitution to the Spanish minister, who seemed well pleased but entered into no conversation about it ; or the letter from the lords of the admiralty to Lord Rochford, informing him of the replacement of the stores which had been removed from the settlement at the time of its seizure by the Spaniards. Of these papers, the only important ones had been before the world from the day of their signature ; and the others merely afford details of no value, respecting affairs of which no one was ignorant.

The other documents quoted in Lord Palmerston's letter, are all extracts from despatches which passed between Lord Rochford and the diplomatic representatives of Great Britain and Madrid, from February, 1771, to February, 1774. On the 14th of February, 1771, Mr. Harris, the British chargé d'affaires at Madrid, writes to Lord Rochford, that the Spanish ministers keep the declaration as secret as possible, and report that they have received a verbal assurance that the Falkland Islands will be abandoned by the British in two months. Lord Rochford, on the 8th of the following month, informs Mr. Harris of the preparations made for resuming possession of Port Egmont, which he had already communicated to Prince de Maserano ; he then continues, " I think it right to acquaint you, that the Spanish ambassador pressed me to have some hopes given him of our agreeing to a mutual abandoning of Falkland's Islands ; to which I replied that it was impossible for me to enter on that subject with him, as the restitution must precede every discourse relating to those islands. You will endeavor on all occasions to inculcate the absurdity of Spain having any apprehensions from the state in which Port Egmont was before its capture, or the force now sent out, of His Majesty's intending to make use of it for the annoyance of their settlements in the South Sea, than which, nothing can be further from the king's inclination, who sincerely desires to preserve peace between the two nations."

On the 6th of March, 1772, Lord Rochford informs Lord Grantham, the British ambassador at Madrid, " that His Majesty had determined to reduce his forces on the Falkland Islands to a small sloop, with about fifty men and twenty-five marines on shore ; which will answer the end of keeping the possession, and at the same time ought to make the court of Spain easy as to our having any intention of making it a settlement of annoyance to them ;" and the last paper cited is a despatch from the same minister to the same ambassador, dated February 11, 1774, declaring the intention of their government to remove all their forces from the islands, " leaving there the proper marks and signals of possession, and of its belonging to the crown of Great Britain ;" and directing the ambassador to make this intention known to the court of Madrid, where it would doubtless give pleasure, as " being likely to discourage them from suspecting designs, which they must now plainly see never entered into our minds. I hope they will not suspect," continues Lord Rochford, " or suffer themselves to be made to believe that this was done at the request, or to gratify the most distant wish of the French court ; for the truth is, that it is neither more nor less than a small part of an economical naval regulation."

By the papers enumerated in the two preceding paragraphs, it is rendered

probable that the British ministers may not have informed the persons with whom the correspondence took place, that they had promised to evacuate Port Egmont soon after its restitution; and there certainly was no necessity that they should have done so, if they had made the promise, while on the contrary it was material, and indeed essential, for their continuance in power, that they should suppress all proof of their having taken an engagement which the whole British nation would have considered as dishonoring. It is certainly not a novelty in diplomacy, that the envoys and agents of a government should be kept in ignorance of matters understood or in discussion between their own ministers of state and those of the country to which they are accredited. History offers numerous examples of such transactions; and we have seen that the negotiation by which the dispute now in question was settled, was conducted on the part of France by the secretary of her embassy at London, while her ambassador himself had no knowledge of it. We, moreover, learn positively from the papers quoted by Lord Palmerston that the Spanish government did, in March, 1772, *press for "a mutual abandonment of the Falkland Islands,"* and did *receive answer, that "the restitution must precede every discourse relating to them;"* and we are to infer that the French government did *express its desire for the withdrawal of the British from those islands.* The British secretary for foreign affairs should certainly have showed distinctly whether or not any such *discourse* took place; and if so, what was the result: on those points, however, nothing appears in his letter.

Lord Palmerston, also, conceives that "*the reservation contained in the Spanish declaration cannot be admitted to possess any substantial weight, inasmuch as no notice whatever is taken of it in the British counter-declaration which was exchanged against it.*" Upon this point it may be remarked, in addition to what has been already offered, that very different views with regard to reservations of right to territories restored, were maintained by the British government in 1826; when the reservation asserted to have been made, was *in favor* of Great Britain. Astoria, a settlement at the mouth of the Columbia river, which had been taken by the British from the Americans during the war in 1813, was, agreeably to the treaty of Ghent, restored to the United States in October, 1818. The only papers exchanged between the commissioners of the two powers on that occasion, were an *act of delivery*, and an *act of acceptance*. By the first, the settlement is simply restored, "*in conformity to the first article of the treaty of Ghent,*" and "*in obedience to the commands of the Prince Regent, signified in a despatch from Earl Bathurst;*" and it is accepted in the same unqualified manner; neither of the papers containing the slightest allusion to any claim or reservation of right by Great Britain. Yet eight years afterward, in an official *statement** presented by the British commissioners, Messrs. Huskisson and Addington, to Mr. Gallatin, the plenipotentiary of the United States at London, during a negotiation relative to the territory thus delivered, it is asserted that "*particular care had been taken on the occasion of the delivery to prevent any misapprehension as to the extent of the concession made by Great Britain;*" and as evidence of this *particular care*, are cited two despatches from the British ministers to their *own agents*, never before published or communicated in any way to the govern-

* Documents accompanying President Adams' Message of March 15th, 1828—page 57.

ment of the United States. One of these despatches is that of Lord Bathurst, mentioned in the *act of delivery*, in which it seems that his lordship had inserted in a parenthesis the words, "*without, however, admitting the right of that government to the possession in question:*" the other despatch is addressed to the British envoy at Washington, instructing him to assert the claim of Great Britain to the same territory; which instruction, it is said, was *verbally executed*. "The above documents," conclude the British commissioners, "put the case of the restoration of Fort Astoria in too clear a light to require further observation." Thus we see the British government in 1826, pronouncing valid a reservation, which if made by one party was never communicated to the other; and in 1834, denying the force of a similar reservation openly inserted in an official paper, addressed to and formally received as sufficient by the other party.

To conclude with regard to the occupation and relinquishment of Port Egmont by the British:—That settlement was probably founded for no other reason, than because the French had made an establishment at Port Louis; and nothing but pride could have induced the British ministers to maintain it so long at so great an expense, after its uselessness had been demonstrated. That they did promise the Spaniards to withdraw from it, soon after it should have been restored, there seems to be strong ground for believing; and if so, they are certainly to be praised instead of being blamed for so doing. The whole business of the arrangement in the dispute seems indeed to have been a diplomatic farce; the object of which was rather the restitution of the British people to good humor, than the restitution of Port Egmont to the British king. The place was restored only that it might be abandoned; the Spaniards reserved their right to it, on the condition that the right of Great Britain should not be questioned; and Bucareli, whose acts had been disavowed by his sovereign, was soon after received with distinction by that sovereign at Madrid, and in 1775, was raised to the viceroyalty of Mexico, one of the highest and most lucrative posts in the Spanish empire.

OCCUPATION OF THE FALKLAND ISLANDS BY SPAIN.

After the evacuation of Port Egmont by the British, in 1774, that place remained and still remains deserted. Whatever may have been the original value of the British claim to that spot, or the circumstances which led to or accompanied its abandonment, no objection appears to have been made at any time on the part of Great Britain, to the possession of Soledad by the Spaniards, who continued there in undisturbed exercise of all the rights of sovereignty, not only over the East Falkland, but over the whole group, until about the year 1808. Attempts were also made at this time to form establishments on the coast of Patagonia, but they were all unsuccessful.

Of the extent of the Spanish settlement at Soledad during this period, we have no distinct accounts. The remains of the town show, that though small, it was tolerably well built; and provided with a government house, church, storehouses, and forts, all of stone. It was under the superintendence of an officer entitled *Commandant of the Malvinas*, who was dependent on the viceroy of La Plata; and vessels of war were from time to time sent from Buenos Ayres to cruise among the islands, and to warn all vessels of other nations against trespassing on the coasts.

These warnings appear to have produced very little effect; for the Falkland Islands were much frequented by the sealing and whaling vessels, especially by those of the United States, which began to resort to them about the year 1786, in order to fish or obtain water, and sometimes to hunt the wild cattle abounding on the East Falkland. Many American vessels indeed carried letters from the Spanish envoys and consuls in the United States, recommending that they should not be disturbed, in case of their resorting to the islands to obtain water; but the commandants paid no attention to such letters, and uniformly ordered the vessels away; while the Americans, on the other hand, appear to have as uniformly disregarded these orders. We have however no account of the seizure or actual ill-treatment of any American vessel in those seas by the Spaniards, whose warnings were probably intended by their government, merely as assertions of the right of sovereignty over the adjacent territories.*

In 1790, another dispute arose between Great Britain and Spain, in consequence of the seizure by a Spanish officer, of some British vessels, and of a pretended British factory at Nootka Sound,† on the northwest coast of North America, during the summer of 1789. The principles involved in this dispute were nearly the same as those which had been discussed between the two governments in 1770, with regard to the Falkland Islands; and the affair for some time took the same course. The Spanish government refused to surrender its pretensions to the exclusive navigation of the Pacific and Southern oceans, and to the sovereignty of the vacant portions of America bordering upon those seas; and the Catholic king called on his cousin of France for aid, agreeably to the Family Compact, in resisting the demands of Great Britain. But the state of things in France was very different from that which existed in 1770; the king was no longer absolute; and the national assembly, to which the application of the Spanish monarch was referred, embraced the occasion to annul the Family

* Many curious particulars respecting the Falkland group may be found in the published narratives of some of these whaling voyages; as for instance in those of the Americans, Barnard, Fanning, and Morell; and in that of Captain Weddell, an Englishman, who passed several years in the South Atlantic and Pacific oceans. Barnard, the master of the brig *Nanina* from New York, with four men, was left on one of the westernmost of the islands, called *New Island*, in the winter (July) of 1813, by the crew of the British ship *Isabella*, whom he had found there after the wreck of their vessel; and who repaid him by seizing his brig while he and the other men were on shore. These persons remained on the island, subsisting on penguins and eggs, until November of the following year; when they were taken off by a British vessel, the master of which had been requested by the British admiral at Rio to look for them. The interesting journal of the voyage of the brig *Hope* of Boston, written by her captain, Joseph Ingraham, which is preserved in the library of the department of state, at Washington, contains an account of that vessel's visit to Berkeley Sound, in January, 1791; she there obtained a supply of meat from the Spanish commandant, who however evaded all Ingraham's attempts to visit Soledad.

† A full account of all these circumstances will be found in a memoir on the northwest coast of North America, by the author of the present paper, which was published in 1840, by order of the Senate of the United States, and subsequently by Messrs. Wiley and Putnam, of New York.

Compact, and to strip the crown of some of its most essential attributes. While debates on these points were going on in the assembly, the Spanish government, despairing of assistance from that quarter, presented, as in 1770, a *declaration*; in which the Catholic king engaged to restore such vessels and establishments on the northwest coast of America, as could be shown to have been taken by his officers from British subjects; with the reservation that this concession should not affect the question respecting the right of sovereignty over those territories; and the British government, as in 1770, returned a *counter-declaration*, wherein His Britannic Majesty promised to accept this engagement, and the performance of it, as sufficient reparation for the injury sustained by him; the reservation of the Spanish king being unnoticed.

The Spaniards no doubt hoped that the affair would end at this point; but Mr. Pitt, who then ruled Great Britain, had in the beginning announced through the king's speech, His Majesty's determination to require from Spain *a distinct acknowledgment of the right of British subjects to navigate and fish in any part of the Pacific and Southern oceans, and to settle or trade with the aborigines in any part of the coasts of those seas not previously occupied by some other civilized nation*; and in order to enforce these demands, he had prepared vast naval armaments, which, in the event of a refusal by Spain, would have been employed in conquering or revolutionizing her American dominions. In the mean time, however, France had also begun to arm, and the revolutionary anti-monarchical principles which pervaded that kingdom were spreading over surrounding countries. The rulers of Great Britain and of Spain began to find that peace and union between their nations were essential to enable them to withstand the impending storm; and as the leaders of the movement in France were by no means anxious for war with either of those powers, private communications, with the object of settling the difficulties, were established among the three governments.

The result of these negotiations was the signature, on the 28th of October, 1790, of a convention, commonly called the *Nootka treaty*, between Great Britain and Spain; in which the latter did indeed acknowledge the rights of British subjects, as required by Mr. Pitt; but the acknowledgment was qualified by conditions and limitations with regard to the exercise of those rights, which nearly if not entirely destroyed the value of the concession. Thus it was agreed that British vessels should not navigate or fish within ten leagues of any of the coasts occupied by Spain—which coasts according to the treaty extended continuously on the Pacific as far north as the 38th degree of north latitude—and that the subjects of both parties should have free access to, and liberty of trade in, any establishment formed by either north of that latitude. By the sixth article it was also agreed that neither party should in future make any settlement on the eastern or the western coasts of South America, or the adjacent islands, to the south of the parts of the same coasts and islands then occupied by Spain; though the subjects of both were at liberty to land on any of those coasts and islands, and to erect temporary habitations *only*, for the purposes of their fishery. By this article it is evident that the British were excluded from occupying any part of the Falkland Islands, so long as that stipulation remained in force; and the question therefore occurs—how long did the convention of 1790 bind both the parties to it?

Spain declared war against Great Britain, in October, 1795; since

which period, no distinct allusion to the convention of 1790 appears to have been made by either of the parties, in its public acts addressed to, or its engagements concluded with, the other. The only arrangement for the renewal of former compacts between them, is contained in the *first* of the *three additional articles* to the treaty of Madrid, signed August 28th, 1814, whereby "it is agreed that during the negotiation of a new treaty of commerce, Great Britain shall be admitted to trade with Spain upon the same conditions as those which existed previously to 1796; all the treaties of commerce which at that period subsisted between the two nations, being hereby ratified and confirmed." But this article could have related *only* to treaties of commerce between the *European dominions* of the parties; for in the first place, no commerce existed agreeably to treaty, between either party or its colonies and the colonies of the other, before 1796; and moreover, another article in the same treaty of Madrid provides that, "in the event of the commerce of the Spanish American colonies being opened to foreign nations, His Catholic Majesty promises that Great Britain shall be permitted to trade with those possessions, as the most favored nations." Thus it would seem that the convention of October, 1790, between Great Britain and Spain, expired in October, 1795, and has not since been renewed; and if that be the case, Great Britain and Spain should each stand with regard to the Falkland Islands, as if it never had been concluded.

It was however maintained by the British commissioners in their *statement*, presented to Mr. Gallatin during the negotiation at London in 1826, respecting the northwest coasts of North America, that the convention of 1790 was forever binding on both the parties or their representatives; and "that *all the arguments and pretensions, whether resting on priority of discovery, or derived from any other consideration, had been definitively set at rest by the signature of that convention.*" "Whatever," says the statement, "the title may have been, either on the part of Great Britain, or on the part of Spain, prior to the convention of 1790, it was from thenceforward no longer to be traced in vague narratives of discoveries, several of them admitted to be apocryphal, but in the text and stipulations of that convention itself." The commissioners, insisting that the only right to the territories on the northwest coasts possessed by the United States, were those derived from Spain through treaty in 1819, go on to say:—"with those rights the United States necessarily succeeded to the limitations by which they were defined, and the obligations under which they were to be exercised; and from these obligations and limitations as contracted towards Great Britain, Great Britain cannot be expected gratuitously to release those countries, merely because the rights of the party originally bound have been transferred to a third power." Now every thing here said of the northwest coasts of America applies, and must apply in the same extent, to the southernmost coasts of the continent, and the islands adjacent; and if the consent of both parties or their representatives be necessary for the exclusive possession by either of the northwest coast, the consent of both parties or their representatives must be also necessary for the occupation by either of any point in Patagonia, Tierra del Fuego, the Falkland Islands, or any other islands in their vicinity, not occupied by either before 1790.

Spain abandoned the Falkland Islands before 1810, and has not since that year again directly laid claim to them. The party appearing to represent Spain in her title to those islands, as well as to Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego, is the government of Buenos Ayres.

FALKLAND ISLANDS CLAIMED BY BUENOS AYRES.

On the overthrow of the Spanish supremacy in the viceroyalty of La Plata, those territories, with the exception of Paraguay, were converted into a republic, under the name of the *United Provinces of Rio de la Plata*; and Buenos Ayres, the capital of the viceroyalty, became the seat of government of the republic. The union among these provinces was, however, of short duration; and dissensions soon arose in every part of them, which led to constant civil wars. At length, in 1825, the northern provinces separating themselves from the others, became the *Republic of Bolivia*; and in the following year the southern portion of the former viceroyalty, took the name of the *Argentine Republic*, the territory of which has, however, been since subdivided into several independent states. Buenos Ayres is nominally at least the capital of the *Argentine Republic*; and the party holding the power there for the time, assumes the title of the Argentine government.

The first assertion of a claim to the possession of the Falkland Islands, on the part of the government of Buenos Ayres, was made in November, 1820, by Captain Daniel Jewett, a native of Pennsylvania, then commanding the frigate *Heroína*, in the service of the United Provinces. On the 6th of that month, Jewett landed at the spot formerly occupied by the Spanish colony of Soledad, and in the presence of the officers and crews of several British and American whaling vessels then lying in Berkeley Sound, he took solemn possession of the whole group of islands in the name, and, as he asserted, by special commission of the government of the United Provinces. Captain Weddell, the commander of the British brig *Jane*, who was present at this ceremony, and who has since published a narrative of his voyages in the Southern ocean, ridicules the whole proceeding; insinuating his belief, that Jewett had merely put into the harbor in order to obtain refreshments for his crew, and that the assumption of possession was chiefly intended for the purpose of securing an exclusive claim to the wreck of the French ship *Uranie*, which had a few months previous foundered at the entrance of Berkeley Sound. The number of vessels of various nations then on the coasts of the islands were not less than fifty, the majority of which were from the United States.

Whatever may have been Jewett's motives, or the value of the declaration of right made by him, his act was not for some time officially adopted as its own by the government of Buenos Ayres. That government, on the 22d of October, 1821, issued a decree regulating the fishery on the Patagonian coast, and subjecting all foreigners resorting to it for that purpose to heavy duties; but no allusion is made to the Falkland Islands, Tierra del Fuego, or any other coast or territory than that of Patagonia. At length, in 1824, a German named Louis Vernet, who had resided long in the United States, and had thence removed to Buenos Ayres, where he married a lady of the place, obtained from the government, in satisfaction of some debt due to his wife's family, a grant of the exclusive privileges of fishery, killing cattle, and making settlements in the East Falkland Island; while at the same time a certain Don Pablo Areguati was appointed *Commandant of the Malvinas*. In virtue of this grant, Vernet and some other persons united in fitting out an expedition for the purpose of forming an establishment on the island; the effort, however, was not successful, and another made in 1826 also failed, in consequence, as Vernet conceived, of

his want of power to restrain the colonists and the foreigners frequenting the coasts.

To remedy these evils, Vernet obtained from the government of Buenos Ayres a decree, dated January 5th, 1828, by which the East Falkland and Staten Land were ceded to him in full possession, together with the right of fishery on the coasts of Patagonia, Tierra del Fuego, and the Malvinas, for twenty years. In the latter part of the same year, General Lavallé having expelled the constituted authorities from Buenos Ayres, and shot the President Dorrego, placed himself at the head of the Argentine state; and from his administration, Vernet procured two other decrees, both dated June 10th, 1829, which gave him all the powers necessary for carrying his plan into effect. By the first of these decrees all the Falkland Islands and Tierra del Fuego, were to be placed under the control of a *political and military governor*, who was to reside at Soledad, and to cause the laws and regulations of the republic, especially those respecting the seal-fishery on the coast, to be rigidly observed; and by the other decree, Vernet was himself appointed military and political governor of those islands. Within a few days after these documents had been signed, Lavallé and his adherents were in their turn displaced by a revolution, their administration was declared *intrusive*,* and its proceedings were disavowed. Nevertheless, Vernet succeeded in enlisting a small number of persons in his service, with whom he sailed from Buenos Ayres; and he made his public entrance into his capital of Soledad on the 30th of Aug., 1829.

Vernet, on this occasion, appeared as the proprietor of the East Falkland, and as governor of the islands in virtue of the decrees of June 10th. In the preamble to the first of those decrees, the title of Buenos Ayres to the possession of the islands is set forth as resting on the grounds—that in 1810, when the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata separated themselves from the dominion of Spain, that nation possessed the islands in question by the right of first occupancy, by the assent of the principal maritime powers of Europe, and by the proximity of the islands to the part of the continent forming the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, upon which government they depended; and that the government of the republic having succeeded to every right which Spain possessed and her viceroys exercised over the provinces, had continued to perform acts of dominion in those islands, though circumstances had hitherto prevented it from extending to them that care which they merited.

* After the expulsion of Lavallé and his adherents, the legislature which had been forcibly dissolved by him in December, 1828, was reassembled, the elections subsequently made having been declared illegal; and a number of decrees were issued against *the anarchists*—the term applied to the expelled party—by one of which, dated March 13, 1830—

“Every person who might be considered as author, abettor, or accomplice, in the affair of December 1st, 1828, [the date of the commencement of Lavallé's usurpation,] or of any of the outrages committed against the laws, by the *intrusive government*, and who had not given unequivocal proofs that he held those proceedings in abomination, should be punished as guilty of rebellion.”

The party by which these decrees were issued has been ever since in possession of Buenos Ayres, of which republic, General Rosas, the successful rival of Lavallé, is now the head; the latter, after repeated attempts to regain the ascendancy, was entirely overthrown and killed in October, 1841.

As Patagonia is not mentioned in the decree, and it is the part of the continent to which the islands are in proximity, we are to infer that the government of Buenos Ayres regarded this territory as having been included in the viceroyalty of La Plata when the United Provinces became independent; and indeed assertions to that effect have been repeatedly made by the Argentine Republic. That the coasts of Patagonia and the islands were placed under the protection of the viceroy of Buenos Ayres, there is no doubt; but it does not follow that any of these territories actually formed parts of that viceroyalty; for the Mosquito coast was in like manner placed under the protection of the viceroy of New Granada, while the territory, of which that coast is the border, was under the jurisdiction of the Captain-General of Guatemala. Alcedo, in his dictionary of America, indeed, makes the strait of Magellan the southern limit of that viceroyalty; and the same view of its extent is presented by Mr. Graham, one of the commissioners sent by the government of the United States to Buenos Ayres in 1817. Mr. Bland, another of the commissioners, who, in his report, describes the boundaries of La Plata with great minuteness, however, gives as its southern limit the parallel of thirty-eight and a half degrees of south latitude. "This territory," says Mr. Bland, "is at present entirely in possession of the various tribes of Patagonian savages, over whom the colonial government exercised no authority, nor asserted any claim, other than that of a right of pre-emption and of settlement in their territory, against all foreign nations; to which rights and benefits the independent government claims to have succeeded." Mr. Pazos, a native of the viceroyalty, moreover, begins his letters, addressed in 1819 to the Hon. H. Clay, of the house of representatives of the United States, by stating that, "The Republic of the United Provinces of South America comprehends, with some exceptions, the same territory as the viceroyalty of Rio de la Plata, which was established in 1778; it extends from the 16th to the 45th degree of south latitude, [*nearly ten degrees north of Magellan's Strait,*] from the left margin of the Lake Titicaca on the north, to the coast of Patagonia on the south." And the same limits are traced on the map accompanying the work. The last authority which will be cited on this point, is the ultra-royalist history of the revolutions of South America, by Torrente, who had access to all the best sources of information on the Spanish side, and who certainly shows no disposition to yield or abate any claim on the part of his sovereign. In the introduction to this work the viceroyalty of La Plata is represented as extending southward to the latitude of 41 degrees; and in the map accompanying it, a line drawn from the Andes eastward to the head-waters of the river Colorado, and down that stream to its mouth in the Atlantic, near the 40th degree, is given as the boundary between the viceroyalty and Patagonia.*

Even admitting that Patagonia and the islands near its southern extremity were considered by the government of Spain as parts of the viceroyalty of La Plata, at the period of the commencement of the revolutions at Buenos Ayres, it by no means follows that those territories should be

* The writer has been unable to consult any edition of the *Recopilacion de Leyes de Indias*, or compilation of the laws governing the Spanish dominions out of Europe, of later date than 1774; but it is not probable that the work would throw any light on the question, as the Spanish government always carefully avoided, as far as possible, any distinct annunciation of boundaries.

come the property of all or any one of the states into which that section of the Spanish empire has been divided. At the period above mentioned, Spain did not hold the sovereignty of those countries *de facto*, for there was not a single Spanish officer or other authority in them; nor by the consent of other nations, for her claim to them was universally denied. She had indeed a right to occupy them, which was stronger perhaps than that of any other nation, in consequence of their proximity to her settled dominions. Thus, she might with justice have complained of the establishment of foreigners on those coasts, while no other nation could reasonably have objected to her occupying any part of them; upon the general principle that every government is bound to provide for the peace and security of its citizens or subjects, by keeping at a distance those who would be likely to disturb them. But no further did the right of Spain extend with regard to that part of America; and no more, if so much, should be conceded to the Argentine or any other state adjoining it.

To proceed another step in admissions. Supposing the Argentine Republic to have really and unquestionably inherited from Spain the sovereignty of the territories adjoining it on the south, and the contiguous islands; that government would still want the right to extend its "regulations respecting the seal-fishery," to the unsettled portions of the coasts of those territories. That right was indeed assumed by Spain, with many equally unjust, which were enforced so long as other nations did not find it prudent to contest them. But as the Spanish power waned, other nations claimed their imprescriptible rights; they insisted on navigating every part of the open sea, and of its unoccupied straits and harbors, with such limitations only as each might choose to admit by treaty with another; and they resorted to the North Pacific coasts of America for trade and settlement, and to the southernmost shores of the continent for the seal-fishery, without regard for the exclusive pretensions of Spain to the sovereignty of those regions. *Of the hundreds of vessels, nearly all American, which annually frequented the coasts and seas above mentioned after 1789, not one was captured or detained by the Spanish authorities;* and long before the revolutions in Southern America began, the prohibitory decrees of the court of Madrid, and of its governors, relative to those parts of the world, had become obsolete, and the warnings of its officers were treated as jests.

The common right of all nations to navigate and fish in the open sea, and in its indefensible straits, and to use their unsettled shores for temporary purposes, is now admitted among the principal maritime powers; and the stipulations in treaties on those subjects, are intended to prevent disputes as to—*what coasts are to be considered as unsettled,—what straits are indefensible,—within what distance from a settled coast the sea ceases to be open, &c.* The governments of Spanish American republics have, however, in many instances exhibited a strong indisposition to conform with these and other such regulations of national law, though clearly founded on justice and reason, and intended clearly for the benefit of the weak, to which class they all belong. Whatever Spain, in the plenitude of her might, when the sun never set upon her empire, chose to assume for any section of her American dominions, the government of the state into which that section has been converted, appears to consider itself also warranted in assuming the same as a just right: and we frequently see some extravagant or oppressive decree of the court of Madrid, or of one of its viceroys,

removed from the archives in which it had been buried for a century, and gravely cited by a Spanish American minister, in support of a preposterous pretension on the part of his republic. Indeed, from attempts to enforce such obsolete claims, or to maintain rules, customs, and prerogatives equally at variance with the civilization of the age, have arisen nearly all the disputes of these new nations with each other, and with the rest of the world.

Until this period the declarations and decrees of the Argentine government respecting Patagonia and the adjacent islands, do not seem to have seriously attracted the attention of any other power, and they were probably, wherever known out of Buenos Ayres, consigned to the same class with other extravagant pretensions which are from time to time advanced by the governments of Spanish American republics. When, however, Vernet, in virtue of the decrees of June 10th, above mentioned, had departed for the seat of his government, and it was understood that he had determined to enforce the exclusive regulations respecting those coasts, it became necessary for other powers to provide for the protection of their subjects or citizens, engaged in navigating the southern seas. Accordingly on the 19th of November, 1829, Mr. Woodbine Parish, consul-general of Great Britain at Buenos Ayres, addressed a note to the minister of foreign affairs, in which he declared himself instructed by his government to protest against the proceedings of the Argentine Republic with regard to the Falkland Islands. To this note a simple acknowledgment of its receipt was immediately returned by the Buenos Ayrean minister; but no answer was made to it, and it was kept entirely secret by the government.

In a summary of the contents of this note, inserted by Lord Palmerston in his communication to the minister of Buenos Ayres, dated January 8th, 1834, Mr. Parish is said to have declared to the government of Buenos Ayres—"1. That the authority which that government had thus assumed was considered by the British government as incompatible with the sovereign rights of Great Britain over the Falkland Islands.—2. That those sovereign rights, which were founded upon the original discovery and subsequent occupation of those islands, had acquired an additional sanction from the fact that His Catholic Majesty had restored the British settlement which had been forcibly taken possession of by a Spanish force in the year 1771.—3. That the withdrawal of His Majesty's forces from the Falkland Islands in 1774, could not invalidate the just rights of Great Britain, because that withdrawal took place only in pursuance of the system of retrenchment adopted at that time by His Majesty's government.—4. That the marks and signals of possession and of property left upon the islands, the British flag still flying, and all the other formalities observed upon the occasion of the departure of the governor, were calculated not only to assert the rights of ownership, but to indicate the intention of resuming the occupation at some future period. Upon these grounds Mr. Parish protested against the pretensions set up on the part of the Argentine Republic, and against all acts done to the prejudice of the just rights of sovereignty heretofore exercised by the crown of Great Britain." Lord Palmerston, in addition to this summary, says in his letter, "The claim of Great Britain to the sovereignty of the Falkland Islands having been unequivocally asserted and maintained during these discussions with Spain in 1770 and 1771, which nearly led to a war between the two countries, and Spain

having deemed it proper to put an end to those discussions by restoring to his majesty the *places* from which British subjects had been expelled, the government of the United Provinces could not reasonably have anticipated that the British government would permit any other state to exercise a right as derived from Spain which Great Britain had denied to Spain herself."

It will not be difficult to show that the most material of these assertions, on which indeed all the others depend, is entirely destitute of foundation. No evidence has yet been produced, that the claim of Great Britain to the sovereignty of the Falkland Islands was in any way asserted or maintained during discussions with Spain, in 1770 and 1771, or before or after that period. The British in 1770 demanded the restoration of *Port Egmont*, and in 1771 *Port Egmont* was restored by Spain; and the restitution of that *single place* was specially declared and admitted to be a sufficient reparation for all the injuries which Great Britain had suffered from Spain. Neither in the declaration, nor in the counter-declaration, nor in the order for the delivery of Port Egmont—the only documents as yet made public which can be regarded as authorities respecting the extent of the engagements concluded between the two nations in 1771—does any reference appear to any part of the islands except Port Egmont; and even with regard to that place, Spain was allowed to insert a formal reservation of her right of sovereignty, in the very act promising the restitution. Spain was never required to evacuate Soledad, nor was her right to that or any or every other spot in the Falkland Islands, except Port Egmont, questioned by Great Britain in any communication between the two governments which has yet been exposed to the public eye. On the contrary, we know that the Spanish authority was *unequivocally asserted and maintained* at Soledad, and asserted if not maintained over the whole group, for more than thirty years after the evacuation of Port Egmont.

These are facts which are not to be overthrown by any declarations or communications of British authorities or agents addressed *to each other*; nor should the reasons for which Port Egmont was abandoned, nor the flags, marks, or signals which are said to have been left there at that occasion, be considered as matters with which the rest of the world has any concern. If the right of possessing a territory be derived from occupancy, certainly that right should be regarded as resigned by abandonment of the territory for a long period; and no pretension seems to be more completely at variance with reason and justice than this advanced by the British government, according to which, an uninhabited country is to be forever rendered useless to the world—to be virtually annihilated—because a British flag had once been left flying on it. Whatever title may be established for Great Britain to the sovereignty of Port Egmont, or the West Falkland, by such strained interpretations of obsolete, arbitrary rules of national law—rules which her government has always strenuously repudiated whenever they have been cited against her claims—she has no just right to Soledad, or the East Falkland, which by the same rules are more clearly the property of Spain.

The attention of the government of the United States was first directed to these proceedings of the Buenos Ayreans in 1830, in consequence of an American sealing vessel, called the *Harriett* of Stonington, having been ordered away from the Falkland Islands by Vernet; and instructions were sent to Mr. Forbes, the *chargé d'affaires* of the United States near

the Argentine government, to address "an earnest remonstrance against any measures that may have been adopted by that government, including the decree and circular letter referred to, if they be genuine, which are calculated in the remotest degree to impose any restraints whatever upon the enterprise of the citizens of the United States engaged in the fisheries in question, or to impair their undoubted right to the freest use of them." Unfortunately, however, Mr. Forbes died in the middle of 1831, without having complied with this instruction. Had such an earnest remonstrance been directed in time, it would in all probability have prevented the occurrence of events, the effects of which have been serious and lamentable.*

In the mean time, Vernet was increasing his establishment at Soledad. Agreeably to an account of a visit made to it by a British naval officer, in the latter part of 1831, the number of persons in the colony, was about one hundred; including twenty-five *Gauchos*,† and five Indians, who hunted cattle; a few Dutch and German families, chiefly engaged in making butter and cheese; and fifteen negro slaves, whose services Vernet had purchased for a term of years from the government at Buenos Ayres. The others were English, French, Spaniards, and Portuguese. The houses of the inhabitants were those which had been occupied by the Spaniards, and which only required new roofs. Vernet resided in the dwelling of the former commandant, a long low building of one story with very thick walls of stone; in his sitting-room was a good library of English, German, and Spanish works, as well as a handsome piano, on which Senora Vernet executed Rossini's music with considerable taste. The governor himself is described as a man "with prepossessing features and gentlemanly address, possessing much information and speaking several languages with fluency." His principal officers and assistants were two Englishmen; one of whom, Henry Metcalf, acted as commandant during his absence, and the other, Matthew Brisbane, an old sealing captain, superintended the commercial affairs of the colony. Vernet had divided the island into eleven sections, one of which, containing about ten square miles of surface, he sold to Lieutenant

* See letter from G. W. Slacum, Consul of the United States at Buenos Ayres, to the Argentine government, dated December 15th, 1831, as published by that government.

† The *Gauchos* are herdsmen, inhabiting the vast uncultivated plains called *Pampas*, southwest of the river of La Plata. They are said to be the best horsemen in the world, and their business requires that they should be strong and courageous, and insensible to fatigue and privations. Their principal weapons are ropes, which are arranged in two ways. The *lazo* is a cord with a running noose at one end, which they throw from the distance of many yards over the horns of a bull, or the neck of a man or horse. The *bola* consists of three cords, each about four feet in length, to one end of each of which is fixed an iron ball, while the other ends of all the cords are united by one knot; the *Gaucha* holds the knot in his hand, while he swings the remainder of the instrument around his head, and then throws it at the legs of an ox, which are thus generally in an instant bound fast in its coils. The *Gauchos* carried to the Falkland Islands by Vernet, were chiefly Spaniards; though their *capataz* or chief was a Frenchman, named Simon. They are represented as savage, banditti-looking persons, who passed all their leisure hours in gambling; "with their huge cloaks, slouched hats, ear and nose rings, thick, curly, bushy hair hanging down to their shoulders, and their daggers in their girdles, seen too by the dim light of a large lamp hanging from the ceiling, they formed altogether a group, such as is described in the old Italian romances, as reveling in the deep caverns of the mountains, after a desperate but prosperous adventure."

Langdon of the British navy, with a proviso that he should form a settlement on it within a stated period. The writer of the account,* who visited the island with Langdon, paints every thing *en couleur de rose*, and strongly recommends the country to emigrants from England, as possessing great advantages for settlement. From other accounts, however, it appears that the inhabitants were in misery, and complained bitterly of the impositions practised by Vernet, in order to induce them to accompany him, as well as of his tyrannical conduct after their arrival.

Vernet, however, began to be anxious for larger returns from his colony; he had no means of carrying on the seal and whale fishery himself, and finding that the American vessels engaged in those pursuits near the islands disregarded his warnings, he determined to use his powers, in order to enforce submission to his orders, and to fill his own purse. Accordingly on the 30th of July, 1831, he seized the schooner Harriett of Stonington (the same which he had ordered away in 1829) and carried her as a prize into Berkeley Sound; and in the following month, he in like manner captured the schooners Breakwater and Superior, of New York; the former of which was retaken by a part of her crew, and carried to the United States.

The seal-skins on board of the Harriett and Superior were immediately transferred to Vernet's warehouse, and the stores of those vessels were sold at auction, for the benefit of the government; after which, Vernet announced his determination to send both of them to Buenos Ayres for trial. He however changed his mind upon the latter point, and proposed to the American captains that one of the vessels only should be sent to Buenos Ayres, with all the papers requisite for the trial of both; while the other should make a sealing voyage, the advantages of which were to belong to Vernet, if they should both be condemned, and to their owners, in case of their release. The Americans consented to this proposal, as the only alternative; while Vernet knew, as he afterward said, that the vessels would infallibly be condemned. The Superior, in consequence, departed under her captain, Congar, on the sealing voyage as agreed. The Harriett, instead of being sent on at once to take her trial, was employed for some time in a cruise among the islands, under the command of Brisbane, who appears to have been the most active person in all these proceedings; on her return to Soledad, Vernet himself took charge of her, and proceeded in her, with his family and Captain Davison on board, to Buenos Ayres. Of the crews of these vessels, some were engaged voluntarily, and others by force, in navigating them; others were sent in a British vessel to Rio de Janeiro, and others were dispersed in various quarters. Before his departure from the islands, Vernet moreover obliged four seamen of a wrecked American vessel to engage in his own service, by accusing them of a conspiracy against the government; in order to avoid trial for which, they were glad enough to agree to labor, in building a sloop for him.

The Harriett arrived at Buenos Ayres on the 20th of November; at which time, Mr. G. W. Slacum, the consul of the United States, was the only official representative of their interests in the Argentine Republic. To him Captain Davison applied for advice and assistance; and Mr. Sla-

* Published originally in the London United Service Journal, for January, 1833; and reprinted soon after in Littell's Museum, at Philadelphia. The flattering descriptions in this account are copied by Captain Fitzroy in his journal, in order to give force to his censures on the Americans, for their proceedings towards the establishment.

cum thereupon addressed a note to the minister of foreign affairs, briefly stating the circumstances, and requesting to be informed *whether the government intended to avow and sustain the seizure of the vessels*. After some days, the minister replied, that the case of the Harriett was before the department of war and marine, and that after the customary forms had been observed, it would be laid before the government. In return for this evasive answer, the consul immediately addressed an earnest remonstrance and protest to the government, against all measures which had been adopted, asserting a claim on behalf of Buenos Ayres to the coasts and islands mentioned in the decree of June 10, 1829, and against all persons acting under such authority, in the seizure of the Harriett and Superior. A week after the receipt of this last note from Mr. Slacum, the minister repeated his declaration to that gentleman, that the case of the vessel was still under consideration ; announcing, however, at the same time, that the government could not receive the consul's communication as a protest from the government of the United States, inasmuch as the consul had no power to make such protest, and the United States had no right to the Falkland Islands, or the fishery around them, to which the title of the Argentine Republic was unquestionable.

In the mean time, Mr. Slacum had also communicated these circumstances to Captain Silas Duncan, commander of the United States sloop of war Lexington, then lying in the river of La Plata : and after consultation between them, the consul again addressed the government of Buenos Ayres, on the 6th of December, declaring that the Lexington was about to proceed to the Falkland Islands, for the protection of American citizens there engaged in the fishery ; but that she would wait three days, for any communication which the government might think fit to make, "having reference to the immediate suspension of the exercise of the right of capture of vessels of the United States, which might be found fishing within the limits assigned to the jurisdiction or authority of Mr. Vernet, and to the immediate restoration of the Harriett, and the property illegally taken from her, to her legitimate owners." On the following day, moreover, Captain Duncan formally requested that Vernet should be given up to the United States for trial, as having been guilty of piracy and robbery, or that he should be arrested and punished by the laws of Buenos Ayres. On the 9th of the month, the minister again denied the right of the American consul to interfere in the matter, which he pronounced *a private litigious affair*, and declared the determination of his government to complain formally to that of the United States, in case the commander of the Lexington should do any thing "tending to set at nought the right which the Argentine Republic possesses to the Malvinas, and other islands adjacent to Cape Horn, and to prohibit the seal-fisheries thereon." This last note was delivered in the evening of the day of its date ; but on the morning of the same day, the Lexington sailed for the Falkland Islands, carrying away Captain Davison, who being threatened with arrest had taken refuge on board her on the 7th.

In all this long correspondence, the minister of Buenos Ayres most carefully avoided assuming any responsibility for his government, on account of the acts of Vernet ; and he always treated the case of the Harriett as *a private affair at issue between Vernet and Davison, which was to be decided by the government according to the laws of the country*. In one instance Vernet is styled by the minister *Commandant of the Malvinas* ; in all other

places where his name is mentioned, except in the recapitulations of the contents of Mr. Slacum's letters, he appears only as a private individual.

Thus was the commerce of the United States exposed to depredations, by persons for whose acts no satisfaction could ever have been obtained. To any demand for reparation addressed by the government of the United States to that of Buenos Ayres, the latter might at once reply—that the decrees, in virtue of which Vernet pretended to act, had emanated from an *intrusive and illegal* authority, and had never been acknowledged by the constitutional powers of the state, but had, on the contrary, been annulled long before the aggressions forming the subject of the complaint had been committed ; and no other resource would have been left to the American citizens injured by those aggressions, than to prosecute the persons who committed them as individuals, before the courts of Buenos Ayres. Under such circumstances, considering also the great length of time which must have elapsed before any communication could have been received from Washington, and the great amount of injury which might in the interval be inflicted upon American citizens, there can be no doubt that Captain Duncan would have failed in performance of his duty, had he neglected to take measures for bringing to punishment the authors of such acts, and for preventing the commission of them in future.

Accounts of the seizure of the Harriett and Breakwater were brought to the United States by the latter vessel in November, 1831, and were communicated by President Jackson to congress, in his first message, on the 6th of the following month. The president at the same time declared, that the name of the republic of Buenos Ayres “had been used, to cover with a show of authority, acts injurious to the commerce of the United States, and to the property and liberty of their citizens ; for which reason, he had given orders for the despatch of an armed vessel to join the American squadron in the south seas, and aid in affording all lawful protection to the trade of the Union, which might be required ; and he should without delay send a minister to Buenos Ayres, to examine into the nature of the circumstances, and also of the claim set up by that government to the Falkland Islands.”

In pursuance of the intention here expressed by the president, Mr. Francis Baylies, of Massachusetts, was, in January, 1832, appointed chargé d'affaires of the United States at Buenos Ayres, for which place he set off in the beginning of March, soon after the arrival at Washington of the news that the Lexington had sailed to the Falkland Islands. As his instructions have not been published, there are no means of knowing what were in all respects the views of the American government on the points in question. Vernet, however, in a report or memorial to the government of Buenos Ayres, dated August 10th, 1832, declares that, in answer to a letter on the subject, addressed by a friend of his in the United States to the Hon. Edward Livingston, secretary of state, immediately after the appearance of the president's message, that gentleman said—“ Measures had been taken to ascertain on what foundation the claim of jurisdiction over the islands rested; but the sickness and death of Mr. Forbes had, for the time, interrupted the investigation. Our right of fishery, however, in those seas, is one that the government considers indisputable, and it will be given in charge to the minister about to be sent there, to make representations against, and to demand satisfaction for, all interruptions of the exercise of that right.”

The question had, however, become more complicated before the arrival of Mr. Baylies at Buenos Ayres.

The Lexington reached Berkeley Sound on the 28th of December, and lay at the entrance, during a severe gale, until the 31st, when she went up and anchored in front of the harbor of Soledad. Boats were immediately sent ashore, with armed seamen and marines, who made prisoners of Brisbane, Metcalf, and some other persons, and sent them on board the ship; the cannon mounted before the place were at the same time spiked, some of the arms and ammunition were destroyed, and the seal-skins and other articles taken from the Harriett and Superior were removed from the warehouses, and placed in the schooner Dash, which carried them to the United States. Captain Duncan then gave notice to the inhabitants, that the seal-fishery on those coasts was in future to be free to all Americans; and that the capture of any vessel of the United States would be regarded as an act of piracy; and having affixed a declaration in writing to that effect on the door of the government house, he took his departure, on the 22d of January, 1832, carrying with him in the Lexington, Brisbane and six other persons as prisoners, with many of the negroes and settlers as passengers.

The Lexington entered the river of La Plata on the 2d of February; and Captain Duncan, having landed his passengers at Montevideo, addressed a letter to the government of Buenos Ayres, to the effect that he would release the prisoners, on condition that the government would assume the responsibility for their acts. The minister of Buenos Ayres replied, on the 15th, that Vernet having been appointed military and political governor of the Malvinas, in virtue of the decree of June 10th, 1829, he, and the individuals under him, could be amenable only to their own authorities. Upon the receipt of this declaration, which, though ambiguous, might, if given two months earlier, have prevented many difficulties, Brisbane and the other prisoners were discharged at Montevideo. The Argentine government had, however, in the mean time, issued a proclamation, expressing its horror at the scandalous conduct of the Americans, and its determination to obtain ample satisfaction; and Mr. Slacum had been officially informed that all intercourse with him would be suspended.

The accounts of these proceedings, given in the Buenos Ayrean newspapers, especially those in an English Journal, called the British Packet, are filled with denunciations of the Americans, on account of their inhuman and rapacious conduct; and Captain Fitzroy, with the usual readiness of British officers to report any thing unfavorable to the United States, or their citizens, takes occasion, in many parts of the narrative of his voyage, to comment severely on Captain Duncan's acts, and to defend those of Vernet, on whom he bestows a great deal of "*sincere pity*." He indeed insists strongly on the exclusive right of Great Britain to the islands, and speaks of Vernet's settlers as "*poor deluded people, who never dreamed of having no business there, without having obtained the permission of the British government*;" and he admits that "Mr. Vernet may in fact have behaved unjustifiably towards vessels belonging to the United States;" but he continues, "it must be remembered that he had a commission from the Buenos Ayrean government, empowering him to act as civil and military governor of the Falklands; that he believed the Buenos Ayrean authority valid, and *had no doubt in his own mind that he was doing right*. Mr. Vernet therefore was no robber—no pirate—as he was termed by Captain

Duncan, because he tried to uphold his situation, and prevent his settlement from being *robbed* by people who had no claim whatever upon the islands. However wrong Vernet's acts may have been, he was responsible to his government for them; and those who acted under his order, he having a legal commission, certainly did not deserve to be seized as pirates, put in irons, and so carried to the Plata! Neither was it just (setting mercy quite aside) to destroy *the infant colony*, break open or tear down doors and windows, search houses, drawers, and chests, trample over gardens, break through fences, and ill-use the helpless unarmed settlers to such a degree, that for many months afterward, whenever a man of war was seen approaching, the frightened inhabitants at once fled to the interior, not knowing how they might be treated."

These are certainly most extraordinary observations, considering that they proceed deliberately from an officer of a civilized nation. Captain Fitzroy professes to be well acquainted with all Captain Duncan's proceedings, as well as with those of Vernet, and even with the private opinions and convictions of the latter. He asserts positively, not hypothetically, that Vernet believed the Buenos Ayrean authority, under which he held his commission of governor of the Falkland Islands, to be valid; and that he moreover had no doubt, in his own mind, that he was doing right, *in seizing American vessels, and forcing their officers and men to enter into contracts to labor for his own individual benefit.* "However wrong Vernet's acts may have been, he was responsible to his government," says Captain Fitzroy; who, however, at the same time knew, or should have known, that the government of Buenos Ayres had not admitted its responsibility for those acts, and that Captain Duncan's proceedings at Berkeley Sound were only in consequence of the failure of that government to do so, when repeatedly urged. With regard to the charges against the Americans of unnecessary *harshness and want of mercy* towards the people at Berkeley Sound, the answer is simple. Captain Duncan's objects in going to *that infant colony*, were to recover property, which he believed to have been illegally and by violence taken from American citizens; to seize the persons who had committed those acts, and send them to the United States for trial, if the government of Buenos Ayres should persist in withholding a declaration of its responsibility; and to prevent the repetition of such aggressions. As in cases of this kind, the keys of magazines, warehouses, and depositories of papers, are not always produced as soon as demanded, and the persons to be arrested sometimes resist or endeavor to escape, it is very possible that the Americans at Soledad may have torn down a door or a window, and searched a house, and broken through a fence, and trampled a garden; all of which acts may, and probably did, alarm the inhabitants. But the assertion that any harsh or unmerciful acts were committed by the Americans on that occasion, is directly contradicted by the depositions of Metcalf, and other persons, who had been brought away from Soledad in the Lexington, taken at Buenos Ayres, and published by the government, on the 15th of December. Captain Fitzroy admits that his information was obtained almost entirely from Brisbane, whom he met at Soledad, in 1833; and he certainly should have made some inquiries on the other side, before he gave public utterance to censures so severe on the Americans.

To return to the narrative.

Mr. Baylies, the chargé d'affaires of the United States, reached Buenos

Ayres in the middle of June, 1832; and the negotiation* was begun on the 20th of the same month, by a note from that gentleman to the government, in which—he denied the right of the Argentine Republic to interrupt American citizens in their navigation, or their fishery, on the coasts of Patagonia, Tierra del Fuego, or the Falkland Islands; and he demanded, in the name of the United States, restitution of all property taken from their citizens, and reparation of all losses and injuries sustained by them, in consequence of the illegal acts committed by Vernet and his followers, under a pretended commission from the government of Buenos Ayres. He also, at the same time, complained of the suspension of intercourse with the consul of the United States, and suggested as a first step to the renewal of friendly relations between the two governments, that Mr. Slacum, who had returned to Buenos Ayres, should be reinstated in the exercise of his functions. In his subsequent communications, Mr. Baylies entered into an examination of the claims of various powers to the possession of the Falkland Islands; in the course of which, he admitted and supported the validity of the title of Great Britain,† though he insisted upon the right of Americans to the constant and undisturbed use of the shores of those islands, for the purposes of their fishery. With regard to the fishery, Mr. Baylies defended the right of citizens of the United States to use for that purpose the ocean, and all its bays, inlets, and straits, the entrance to which cannot be fortified, as also the coasts of regions uninhabited, or inhabited only by savages: he contended that a constant and uninterrupted use of such coasts, would render that right perfect and entire, although settlements should be subsequently formed on the coasts; and admitting, hypothetically, the right of Buenos Ayres to exclude Americans from the coast of Patagonia, and the adjacent islands, he showed that some preliminary acts, none of which were performed by the Argentine government,

* All that is publicly known respecting this negotiation, is derived from the correspondence, as printed by order of the government of Buenos Ayres, immediately after the conclusion of the negotiation; no documents relating to this dispute have ever been published by the government of the United States.

† Mr. Baylies, in his letter of July 10th, as thus published, after recapitulating the particulars of the dispute between Great Britain and Spain, relative to the Falkland Islands, in 1770, says—"The act of dispossession was disavowed by Spain, and the territory was restored by solemn convention. She, however, reserved her prior rights. The reservation was a nullity; inasmuch as she had no claim, either by prior discovery, prior possession, prior occupation, or even the shadow of a name. The restoration of Port Egmont, and the disavowal of the act by which she was temporarily dispossessed, after discussion, negotiation, and solemn agreement, gave to the title of Great Britain more stability and strength; for it was a virtual acknowledgment, on the part of Spain, of its validity. Great Britain might then have occupied and settled all the islands, and fortified every harbor, without giving to Spain any just cause of umbrage. With her rights again acknowledged, the emblems of sovereignty again reared, and possession resumed by a military and naval force, Great Britain voluntarily abandoned these distant dominions, taking every possible precaution, when she did so, to give evidence to the world, that though she abandoned, she did not relinquish them. It is true, that many years have elapsed since, under these circumstances, she ceased to occupy the Falkland Islands; but the lapse of time cannot prevent her from resuming possession, if her own maxim of law be well founded—*nullum tempus occurrit regi.*"

were requisite, before any capture or detention of citizens or vessels of the United States, engaged in the fishery, could be justifiable.

The Argentine minister, on the other hand, asserted the right of his republic to the exclusive possession of the Falkland Islands, as inherited from Spain, to be notorious and unquestionable; and—always carefully avoiding any thing like an acknowledgment of the legality of the decrees of June 10th, 1841—he dilated upon the “*daring and cruel outrage committed on those islands* by Captain Duncan, in destroying in a time of peace, *with rancorous fury, and in a manner alike perfidious and ferocious*, a settlement founded by the government of the republic.” “This *barbarous act*,” concludes the minister, “in contempt of the established customs of civilized nations, and the courtesy which they invariably observe towards each other, is the point which should take precedence in the consideration of both parties;” and he therefore announced the determination of his government, not to enter into the discussion of any other points, until ample satisfaction, reparation, and indemnification had been obtained by Buenos Ayres, for all injuries and losses caused by Captain Duncan. The minister, however, at the same time, presented to Mr. Baylies a long paper, purporting to be a *report from the civil and military governor of the Malvinas*, and bearing the signature of Vernet, in which all the questions touched by the American chargé d’affaires in his notes, are discussed at length.

This *soi-disant* report from Vernet was immediately returned by Mr. Baylies, without any remark; and as it became certain that no benefit could be derived from a continuance of the negotiation, it was terminated by mutual consent, in the early part of September. The American chargé d’affaires soon after sailed to the United States, where he arrived in December, accompanied by Mr. Slacum, whom the government of Buenos Ayres refused to receive again in a consular character.

On the 21st of December, 1832, immediately after the return of Mr. Baylies to his country, a resolution was passed by the house of representatives, at Washington, requesting the executive to communicate the correspondence with the Argentine government, relative to the Falkland Islands: to which President Jackson answered, that such communication would not be compatible with the public interests, as the negotiation was believed to be only suspended; the Argentine government having officially announced its intention to send a minister to the United States, with powers to treat on the subject. The whole correspondence had however already been printed at Buenos Ayres, by order of the legislature of that place; and it has since been published in English, at London, though it has not appeared in the United States.

With regard to the continuance of the negotiation, no diplomatic representative has been sent by the government of the United States to Buenos Ayres, since the return of Mr. Baylies; though an American consul has constantly resided in that city. General Don Carlos Alvéar, a distinguished officer of the Argentine Republic, has been for some time at Washington, as envoy from his government; but nothing has yet transpired respecting the objects of his mission.

THE FALKLAND ISLANDS AGAIN CLAIMED AND OCCUPIED BY GREAT BRITAIN.

Before the negotiation in 1832 between the United States and Buenos Ayres, the protest of the British government against the claim of the latter

republic to the Falkland Islands, had been kept secret by both parties ; and the Buenos Ayrean minister did not hesitate to assert in a note to the American consul, on the 9th of December, 1831, that the *right of his nation to the islands had never been questioned*. Mr. Baylies, however, obtained a copy of the protest, and of the acknowledgment of its receipt, from the Hon. H. S. Fox, then British minister plenipotentiary at Buenos Ayres, which were enclosed with his note of July 10th to the Argentine government, and were published by its order on the conclusion of the negotiation. Whatever might have been the determination of the court of London with regard to the enforcement of its claim before the period of this publication, certain it is, that soon afterward the British admiral on the Brazil coast directed measures to be taken for assuming effective possession of the islands ; which measures were carried into execution without delay, as will be here shown.

The Argentine government, in the summer of 1832, had despatched a Frenchman to the Falkland Islands, as commandant, in place of Vernet, with about twenty soldiers to support his authority ; and a small armed schooner, called the *Sarandi*, was also sent under Captain Pinedo to cruise among the islands, and order off all foreign vessels. This schooner, in the month of November, met the *Sun*, a small American sealing vessel, commanded by T. P. Trott, and obliged her to quit her course, after firing on her and treating her officers and crew with great insolence. Captain Trott went back to the *Plata*, in hopes of finding an American ship of war to protect him in his business ; but soon after his arrival there, the *Sarandi* herself entered the river, bringing news which rendered further proceedings with regard to her unnecessary.

It appeared that about the time of the attack upon the *Sun*, the soldiers at Soledad, having become discontented with their French commandant, who kept them constantly on drill, mutinied and put him to death. The chief mutineers were soon after seized by the officers and crew of the *Sarandi*, which was about to sail with them to Buenos Ayres ; when, on the 2d of January, 1833, the British sloop of war *Clio* entered Berkeley Sound, and her Captain, Onslow, declared his intention immediately to assume possession of the Falkland Islands for his sovereign. The commander of the *Sarandi* remonstrated against this proceeding ; but the Englishman, without listening to his representations, required him instantly to remove all Buenos Ayrean property from the place, and to take his departure. Pinedo on this found himself obliged to comply ; though he thought proper at the same time to protest against the act of Captain Onslow, and to confer the command of the islands on Simon, the French *capataz*, or chief of the *Gauchos*, who, in an unlucky moment, accepted the office. On the following day the British commander landed at the place, where he struck the Argentine flag, which had been left flying, and hoisted that of his own nation in its stead ; and having made such other arrangements as he thought necessary, he departed, leaving his flag under the care of an Irishman who had been Vernet's store-keeper.

This latter provision for securing the peace of the country seems to have been ineffectual ; for on the 26th of August, 1833, the *Gauchos*, in exercise of their right as the strongest, killed the Irish flag-keeper, as also their chief, Simon, and several other individuals, including Brisbane, the Englishman who had been sent from Buenos Ayres to take charge of Vernet's interests. The murderers were some months afterward taken by

the officers and crew of the British ship of war *Challenger*, and carried to England, where, it is said, they were executed.

About this time took place the visits of Captain Fitzroy, whose vessel, the *Beagle*, several times anchored in Berkeley Sound, whilst the survey of the Magellanic regions by that officer was in progress. During one of these visits in 1834, Captain Fitzroy informed Captain Trott, whose name has been already mentioned, that the claim of Vernet to the possession of the soil of the East Falkland had been allowed by Great Britain; and that the rights of this person to the fisheries, cattle, and other privileges and property in and about the islands would be protected; in exemplification of which Captain Trott was required to desist from picking up wreck-wood on the beach for fuel, until he should have obtained permission from Vernet's agent. Whether the Americans engaged in navigating or fishing in that part of the ocean, have been subjected to any serious restrictions or prohibitions since the attack made on their vessels by the Buenos Ayreans in 1831, cannot be here positively stated; they have certainly received warnings from British vessels of war, not to hunt the cattle on the East Falkland; but that island is seldom visited by the Americans, and the British cruizers do not often appear on the western coasts. There is also reason to believe that the British officer, residing as governor at Berkeley Sound, has issued orders that vessels of no other nation should take whales or seals on or near the coasts of any of the islands; but no account has been obtained of any attempt to enforce such orders against American citizens.

The seizure of the islands by the British was communicated in a message from the executive of Buenos Ayres to the legislature on the 24th of January, 1833; a note was at the same time sent to the British chargé d'affaires, protesting against the pretensions of that government to the Malvinas, and against the insult offered to the flag of the republic; and M. Moreno, the Argentine minister at London, was instructed to urge the demand for the restitution of the islands, and for reparation of the injury and damages occasioned by the seizure. With this object M. Moreno addressed the British government on the 17th of June. The answer of Lord Palmerston, the British secretary for foreign affairs, dated the 8th of January, 1834, has been already frequently mentioned in the foregoing pages, and each particular point in it has been examined at length; it was probably nothing more than one of those diplomatic expedients for the purpose of repelling the importunities of a powerless complainant; in which many pages are employed to convey the meaning of the few words *sic volo sic jubeo*. As a state paper in justification of the acts of Great Britain before the world, it is in all respects unsatisfactory; being indeed a mere tissue of erroneous assertions, insufficient evidence, and illogical deductions. Those who read it, should be cautious in giving their assent to any of its propositions; and they should compare the views of political law there set forth, with those expressed in the *Statement* which emanated from the same government in 1826, during the negotiation with the United States relative to the northwest coasts of North America.

The seizure of Soledad by the British was, in fact, utterly unjust; and their claim to the possession of the Falkland Islands was as unfounded as that of the Buenos Ayreans to prohibit other nations from frequenting them. The latter government had, however, placed itself so manifestly in the wrong, by its illegal and arbitrary proceedings with regard to those

islands, that its complaints excited no sympathy in any quarter, and its opponents, whoever they might be, were sure of having in their favor the prepossessions of the rest of the world. Had the Buenos Ayreans been content to settle on the islands, without seeking to deprive others of advantages which they had no means of appropriating to themselves, and which, by reason, justice, and the consent of all civilized nations, were common to all, it is more than probable that their rights thus exercised would have been tacitly recognised, and that their establishment might have become profitable to themselves, and beneficial to all other nations. But their imprudent and rapacious conduct, in attempting to revive the unjust and obsolete prohibitions which Spain had been unable to enforce, drew down upon them the indignation of more powerful states, and subjected them to humiliations for which they have no claims to redress.

IN CONCLUSION.

The peculiarities of the soil and climate of the Falkland Islands, as regards their effects upon vegetation, appear to forbid the supposition that those territories can ever afford support to more than a very small number of persons; as all the wood and vegetable food required by the inhabitants must be brought from a distance, and they would have little or nothing to give in exchange. It is, however, reasonable to believe that during the continuance of peace among the maritime nations of Europe and America, two or three small settlements at points on the coasts of the islands, particularly on the east side of the East Falkland, for the purpose of supplying vessels with water, and perhaps with salt meat and fish, might be maintained with profit to the occupants, as well as to those engaged in navigating the stormy Southern ocean; but such establishments could only subsist under the protection of some great naval power, which would scarcely refrain from appropriating to itself exclusively the advantages derivable from them. Great Britain has planted her flag on the islands; and there can be little doubt that it will take root. The rapid progress of that power in the colonization of Australia and New Zealand, and in commercial intercourse with the Spanish American states on the Pacific, is well known; her vessels return from those countries usually by way of Cape Horn, and as the Falkland Islands are exactly in their course, and in the best position to serve as an *oasis* in the ocean desert for their refreshment, it is not likely that their wise and watchful government will neglect to provide for their full enjoyment of those benefits.*

* The following observations by Fitzroy merit particular attention :

“ No one making a long voyage hesitates to take in an additional supply of good water during his passage, if he can do so without delay of consequence, and without danger. It is the natural unwillingness to get in with the land, to be delayed in port, to pay heavy port dues, and to risk losing men, which generally induces seamen in command of vessels to avoid every port, excepting that to which they are bound; but if you could ensure to a ship, loading at Sidney, a safe half-way house at the Falklands, she would hardly prefer carrying a quantity of water no longer necessary to the proportion of cargo that might be stowed in its place. Local circumstances, such as the relative position of the land, the set of the tides and currents, the prevailing winds, and the accessibility of Berkeley Sound and Port William, [near the south side of the entrance to Berkeley Sound,] contribute to make the easternmost part of the Falklands safer and more easy of approach, than almost any place that I am acquainted with. The river La Plata is

The trade of the United States with the Spanish American republics on the Pacific is also extensive and important ; and their citizens carry on nearly the whole of the whale and seal fishery in that and in the South Atlantic oceans. To their vessels homeward bound from Cape Horn, the Falkland Islands offer the same advantages as to the British ; and hitherto, or until within a recent period, those advantages have been enjoyed freely and equally by both nations. The United States have no pretensions to the sovereignty of the Falkland Islands, or any other territories in that quarter of the world ; but they claim for their citizens the unrestricted and unconditional right to navigate those seas, bays, and straits, and to use those coasts for the purposes of their fishery, and for the refreshment of their vessels. Will this claim be contested by Great Britain ? will an attempt by that power to appropriate to herself unjustly, privileges and advantages so long open to all, serve as another ground for dispute between her and the United States ?

ART. II.—MORALS OF TRADE.

NUMBER THREE.

THE virtues of honesty and sincerity receive no greater homage from the heart of man, than in the general impression that certain callings are exempted from the strict rules which are essential to others ; for men have not the effrontery to pretend to excuse their lax morals, but support their position, whatever it be, by an appeal to custom, the habits of others, and other sophistical arguments, which ought to go to subvert rather than strengthen them. For these are reasons against the calling itself, if it cannot be conducted in accordance with the strictest rules of the law of the land and the law of conscience.

This appeal to custom, to what others do, is the never-failing resort of those who feel they are doing wrong ; but they do not insult virtue and religion by pretending to be doing right. The necessity of the case, the imperfect state of society, the relations of business, and the habits of trade, make such courses the only alternative ; and so the argument ends. It is better thus than if we had to contend with a perverted mind rather than a wicked one. No case is so hopeless as that in which a man insists up-

out of the way of our homeward-bound vessels, and dangerous. Santa Catherina is almost as much out of reach, and deficient in many articles of supply ; Rio de Janeiro and Bahia are also out of the line, and very expensive, though they are often resorted to. Saint Helena is too far east, scantily supplied, and more expensive than the Brazil. But almost every one of those ships *sight* the eastern end of the Falklands, as they pass by, to correct or verify their longitude ; and how very little delay then would they experience if their course were shaped so as to pass a little nearer Port William, and there heave to under the lee of the land, or let go an anchor, as might be most convenient." The opinion of such an officer as Captain Fitzroy will not probably be disregarded by his government. All his observations apply with equal force to vessels sailing from the Pacific to the United States.

on calling his vices virtues. To be sensible of a fault, is the first step to reformation.

We confess that there are distinctions and rules which, at first originating in justice to protect honesty, have come to be applied to just the opposite cases; as the shield, which was invented to protect the brave man and enable him to fight the longer for his country, may be used to shelter the coward, and cover his back from the darts of the enemy as he runs away from the contest. To give an instance: a man may refuse, in selling a horse, to give a warranty sale of him, because he is perhaps unacquainted with the nature of the animal, his diseases, &c., and does not wish any further trouble in the business. He wishes to be rid of the horse, for better or worse, and is willing to take so much for him. This is perfectly fair, and if the buyer loses by finding some blemish in his purchase, he must blame his own sagacity. Now a jockey may trim up and feed up a broken-down beast and sell him in the same way, without warranty, and, apparently, be in the same position with regard to his purchaser as the first. But it is easy to see that the one is an honest man and the other a knave, though the acts of both are to appearance precisely the same. Is it possible that the jockey, in finding himself untouched by the law of the land, can think he is innocent in the court of conscience? We say it is possible; and he pleads custom, and says others do the same; and perhaps quotes this very case we first supposed, as an argument in his favor. He is in the common error of thinking that what is legal is right; or rather, that so a man does not render himself amenable to the law of the land, he can do nothing wrong.

We are convinced that this opinion is at the foundation of all the dishonesty, fraud, and mistrust which poison the streams of trade, and make what ought to be a school of enterprise, philanthropy, and virtue, a severe temptation and trial for innocence and purity.

The laws which regulate trade are no more complete than those which regulate personal conduct. The law can only deal with acts; it cannot penetrate to motives. It leaves of necessity something for the conscience to do. It does not entirely take away our free agency. Men have the power of doing wrong with impunity, as it regards human affairs. They are not machines moving by the wheel-work of statutes. And it is easy to see that this is wisely ordered; for unless we are subjected to temptation, we can have no virtue. A man may be innocent without temptation, but he cannot be virtuous. The infant in the cradle is innocent, but who thinks of calling it a virtuous infant? Virtue with the ancients meant courage; to fight with passions, boldly to stand in the hour of moral need and to conquer himself, was esteemed the noblest of the victories of a man.

That all human occupations might tend to the cultivation of virtue and the soul—for we are arguing upon the ground that all will admit that life is a disciplinary condition—human laws are limited in their restraints; and, by the ordination of Heaven, the power is granted to every human being of lying, cheating, and defrauding,—sins for which he has to answer in a higher court than any human tribunal.

It seems very proper to state this fairly and plainly, for the benefit of those who are under the strange infatuation of supposing themselves good and honest men, because they do not outrage the laws. Let it not be understood that we assert that any wrong can be committed for which there

is not a penalty. Unhappiness and remorse are the necessary consequences of all sin, as happiness and peace are of virtue ; but human law is left imperfect, in which the penalty does not immediately follow the offence, but is left to another state of being. Were there a penalty for every human offence in this world, the selfishness of the heart is so complete, the love of bodily ease and comfort so cared for, regard for reputation, honor, and station so sought after, that, in so narrow a field, room would not be left for the free action of the soul, and it would be cramped and dwarfed in its attainments.

We refer to the little advantages men take in their transactions with one another—the physical truth and moral falsehood of many actions. A man has a quantity of butter, or wool, or wheat to sell, and may say, that *he knows* of none better in the market, to his purchaser. Now he may know of none better and none worse, because he does not know of any other at all. He utters a physical truth in saying this, but he also is guilty of a moral lie ; for his words mislead the buyer, and he understands him to say that there *is* none better in the market. Thus men deceive themselves and take shelter under a quibble.

In the small trading it is feared there is altogether too much of this play upon words ; but if it stopped there, in the retail business, in sixpenny and shilling bargains, it would seem too contemptible to notice it ; but the pattern for this has been gained from higher authority than small trading. Nor is the doctrine to be supported, that no advantage is to be taken in trade. There are *fair* advantages as well as unfair. The merchant may, by extra pains and outlay in the building and management of his ships, secure speedier returns than another ; get possession of the market and ensure to himself a larger profit than ordinary. By study, intelligence he has paid for, he may know more than another of the political condition of foreign countries, and buy and sell stocks with reference to such knowledge ; while another may lose money in such operations. The retailer may make his place of business attractive by location, neatness, gentlemanly clerks and obliging manners, and thus quite outshine his neighbor who has goods of equal value and price with himself, without any unfairness or criminal deception.

Such considerations are what make trade a science, and call into exercise sagacity and knowledge. The merchant no more than another man is required to carry his heart in his hand, and his plans on his face. He may be secret without being deceitful, and use his discoveries by the patent of keeping his own counsel. Our remarks are aimed at the paltry tricks of trade which are, and can be, practised with impunity, from their very smallness and insignificance, not at the operations in which fortunes are made by foresight, knowledge, and intelligence, which indeed are as much sources of income to the merchant as bank-stock and real estate. Happy that day will be for the interests of trade, when the distinction shall be acknowledged which exists between trickery and foresight, deception and ingenuity ; when the merchant shall be paid for his knowledge, his skill as well as for his goods, and intelligence shall become a staple in the market.

No more just enactment was ever made than that which secures to a man the product of his ingenuity and skill for a term of years. If then the cold and heartless law—and this is its merit, that it has no particular sympathy, but regards only justice, truth, and the general good—has protected a man in the enjoyment of what is vulgarly called his head-work,

when it shows itself in tangible, visible contrivances, such as steam-engines, threshing-machines, and patent scales, much more may a man avail himself, as far as he is able, of his ingenuity and skill in more delicate operations, which involve politics, agricultural and chemical knowledge, besides nice discrimination of character, without overstepping the bounds of honesty, but, on the contrary, with the greatest credit to his understanding and benevolence. It would take away from trade all its honorable excitement were it otherwise, and be using the merchant as a mere convenience, a kind of storehouse for the public benefit. The money he might amass, even in such a state of things, would be far from satisfying the heart of the intelligent merchant. He must have his intellectual spoils and trophies as well as the lawyer and statesman. He asks your applause for an expedition from which he has returned, not stained with blood and followed by the curses of orphans and the lamentations of widows, like the warrior, but loaded down with silks, teas, wines, and spices, by which in two years he has just doubled his fortune. The money is very well, and lies softly and easily in his pocket ; he is not annoyed by the weight of it ; but if we are not much mistaken in the human heart, he regards his reputation as an intelligent, far-sighted man, as a matter of more consequence than all the gold and silver in the world. We cannot stop to argue this matter about the high value even merchants put upon their reputation for intelligence. There is no better proof of the dignity of human nature than the delight he evinces, whose whole life has apparently been devoted to gain, upon finding himself capable of enjoying the society of men of intellectual taste, and the respect and homage he involuntarily shows to wisdom and learning. Men prefer to be thought knaves rather than fools, however unwise it may be, for knavery is the deepest folly. There is no place where a witticism or a keen remark meets a readier sympathy or louder applause, than in the offices and places of resort among merchants ; and especially if it originates from one of themselves. The ready smile and joyous peal of laughter is as much given to a sense of or capacity for intellectual enjoyment as to the saying or remark uttered. We, their hearts say to them, are not mere jobbers, money-getters, and bankers ; we have mind, soul, heart, like other men : blessed be him who invented thinking and joking ! Another proof of their respect for every show of intelligence, is the unusual care they bestow upon handwriting and spelling. You will find ten bad writers and spellers among lawyers and clergymen to one among merchants ; so anxious are they for the appearances of education. But another and more striking proof of this is found in the patronage our merchants bestow upon schools. How could so many precious humbugs thrive, as many of the crack schools undoubtedly are, were it not that merchants, feeling the want of early education, prizing it above rubies, are willing to pay their hundreds of dollars for the bare chance of obtaining it for their children ? They stop not to inquire, so earnest and zealous are they in this cause, such respect have they for mind and learning, and all who profess it, so unsuspecting of any imposition from such a quarter ; but pour their wealth like water to refresh these seminaries of accomplishments, often, alas ! schools of frivolity, show, and superficialness.

There are advantages enough to be taken in trade, fair, honorable gains, the product of superior skill and application. There is room enough and occasions enough, to give scope to applications of mind, science, care,

foresight, without resorting to unlawful means, which, however countenanced by custom, degrade the morals of him who uses them. Let it not be said that love of excitement hurries men into desperate courses, when such noble stimulants abound in the resources of our growing country, which offer a fortune, at least a competency, to any young man who is willing to seek it by industry and honest means. These are false excuses to shield a morbid taste and corrupt customs which have become woven into the habits of trade. The great precept to be uttered to the young merchant is, Wait; be patient; your time and turn will come. Learn a lesson from the husbandman, from the patient birds that remain upon their nests during a long and hungry incubation. By and by the harvest is ripe for the sickle, and the happy bird is wheeling about in the air, mindful of the peeping young ones that now reward her sad and monotonous setting. So to you, success will come, but not in a day or a year. The incubation that hatches out a fortune is long in proportion to the value of the result. But it is not to be gained by stratagem and unfair management; and besides, there is one consideration, above all others, with which we shall close this paper, and that is, that *the fortune which is not fairly won, cannot be happily enjoyed.*

ART. III.—LAWS RELATIVE TO DEBTOR AND CREDITOR.*

NUMBER XIV.'

A L A B A M A .

THERE are few states, in proportion to their population, more intimately or extensively connected in their business relations with other and distant parts of the Union than Alabama. Disposing abroad of the great staple—in the culture of which she is almost exclusively engaged—and relying upon her neighbors for many of the necessities, which otherwise she might herself produce, her laws of debtor and creditor must consequently affect the interest of many, who by their situation are incapacitated from readily ascertaining what those laws are.

To supply this deficiency as far as possible, it is intended in the following article to give a summary view of the laws of Alabama relating to debtor and creditor, together with such information as may be of use to those who have occasion to resort to the laws of this state.

COURTS.

The highest judicial tribunal in this state is the supreme court. It consists of three judges, exercises appellate jurisdiction only, and holds its terms at Tuscaloosa twice in every year, on the first Mondays of January and June.

The circuit court has original jurisdiction in all matters, civil and criminal, throughout the state; but in civil matters only when the value in controversy exceeds fifty dollars. There are ten judicial circuits.

The county or orphans' court has cognizance of all matters relative to

* Prepared for the Merchants' Magazine by Josiah Bond, Esq. Attorney at Law, Mobile.

the settlement of estates, and concurrent jurisdiction with the circuit court, in all actions of a civil nature, excepting real actions. Each county in the state has its own court and judge.

The chancery court has jurisdiction of all matters in equity. There are two chancery divisions, each divided into three districts, with a chancellor presiding over each division.

Justices of the peace have cognizance of all cases of debt or assumpsit—not sounding in damages merely—where the value of the matter in controversy does not exceed fifty dollars, and in cases of forcible entry and unlawful detainer, where the right of *possession* and not the *title* is tried. Executions are returnable in thirty days. Appeals lie from the justice's court to the circuit and county courts—triable *de novo*; from the county court to the circuit and supreme court; and from the circuit and chancery to the supreme court—triable upon the record only—upon errors in law.

The United States circuit court sits at Mobile on the second Monday in March, and the fourth Monday in November. The United States district court for Mobile, on the first Monday in May, and the second Monday in November.

The United States district court for the middle district sits at Tuscaloosa on the fourth Monday in May, and the first Monday after the fourth Monday in November. The state circuit court at Mobile on the third Monday in April, and the first Monday after the fourth Monday in October. The Mobile county court on the second Mondays of February and June. The Mobile chancery on the second Mondays of May and November.

The above are the courts in which non-residents are chiefly interested, the various others sit at different times throughout the year.

PROCESS.

Suit is commenced by a writ of summons, executed at least five days, and returnable three days before the commencement of the term; and is served by the officer leaving a copy of the writ, with the cause of action endorsed upon it, with the defendant. When the action is upon any bond or note for the direct payment of money, suit may be commenced by filing the note with the clerk, accompanied by a petition, setting forth the instrument and praying judgment thereon; which petition will answer for a declaration; and a copy of the same, with summons annexed, served upon the defendant in the manner of a writ, will constitute a sufficient service.

Any person can be held to bail to appear and answer at the proper court, by the plaintiff or his attorney making oath that the defendant is about to abscond, or has fraudulently conveyed, or is about fraudulently to convey his estate, or that he hath moneys liable to satisfy his debts which he fraudulently withholds: unless the defendant will swear that the particular grounds upon which he is arrested are untrue, and that he hath no effects to satisfy his debts, in which case he will be released.

Residents of the state cannot be sued in any of the state courts, out of the county where they reside.

Where a *capias* is returned "*non est inventus*," the plaintiff can sue out a *judicial* attachment against the personal estate of the defendant, (if a resident of the state,) and judgment shall be entered up if the defendant fail to appear and plead in the limited time; but an *original* attachment can only issue upon the plaintiff or his attorney making affidavit that the

defendant is about to abscond—is secreted—resides out of the state—or is about to remove himself or property out of the state; and that an attachment is not sued out for the purpose of harassing the defendant: and further, must give bond in double the amount of the debt to prosecute the attachment to effect, or pay the defendant damages for the wrongful suing out of such attachment.

In case of non-residents, without a resident agent, judgment cannot be rendered upon an attachment until six months after issuance thereof, or until notice shall be given to the defendant or proper publication made. The stay cannot, however, exceed one year.

TRIAL.

The ancient statute of amendments has been re-enacted here, and amendments are also liberally allowed by the courts.

Where the suit is founded upon any writing, whether under seal or not, such writing is received as evidence of the debt or duty for which it was given, and cannot be denied except by plea, supported by the affidavit of the party putting in such plea. And in general, no plea of *non est factum* can be admitted except when accompanied by affidavit as to its truth.

Either party can be admitted to testify upon oath when the value of the contested matter does not exceed one hundred dollars. And interrogatories may also be filed by either party, calling upon the other in open court to give his testimony upon the matter in controversy when its value does not exceed five hundred dollars.

In civil cases the testimony of aged and infirm persons—and females—and those residing over one hundred miles from the place of trial, or without the state—may be taken by deposition through commissioners appointed for that purpose; notice being first given to the adverse party.

Judgments are usually obtained at the second term, and constitute a lien upon all the real estate held by the defendant when the judgment is rendered; but upon personal property only, after the execution is in the hands of the officer.

EXECUTION.

Execution issues forthwith upon rendition of judgment against the property of the debtor, but against the body only in special cases.

The following articles in possession of any family are exempt from execution or other legal process: two beds and furniture, two cows and calves, two spinning-wheels, two hoes, two axes, five hundred weight of meat, one hundred bushels of corn, all the meal that may at any one time be on hand, two ploughs, one table, one pot, one oven, two water vessels, two pair cotton cards, *all books*, one churn, three chairs, one work horse, mule, or pair of work oxen, one horse or ox cart, one gun, all tools or implements of trade, twenty head of hogs, and all arms and accoutrements of the militia.

No property belonging to a tenant upon leased premises is liable to execution until the arrearages (if any) to the amount of one year's rent, are paid to the landlord. Nor is a planted crop liable to execution till the same is gathered.

When the money is made, and the officer retains it in his hands three days after it has been demanded, he is liable to be fined in a sum not less than one half, nor more than the entire amount so received. The party injured may also have his private remedy.

INSOLVENCY.

Upon like affidavit as in the case of a bail, writ or execution against the body of the defendant can issue, but the debtor may discharge himself from arrest by rendering a schedule of all his estate and credits of every kind whatsoever, and taking oath that he has no other estate, real, personal, or mixed, above the value of twenty dollars, except the goods and chattels exempt by law from execution.

If such statement or schedule is controverted by the plaintiff, a jury of twelve men may be summoned instanter by a justice of the peace to ascertain whether such oath or schedule is untrue and fraudulent or not; if proved to be fraudulent, the debtor shall be imprisoned one year, and forever debarred from the beneficial provisions of this law.

In no case can an execution, or other legal process of a civil nature, issue against the body of a female:

We have no bankrupt law in this state, and execution can issue upon any property subsequently acquired by the defendant.

BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

Damages are allowed upon domestic bills, protested for non-acceptance and non-payment at the rate of ten per cent.

Upon foreign bills payable within the United States at the rate of fifteen per cent.

Upon bills payable without the United States at the rate of twenty per cent, and all charges incidental thereto with legal interest until paid.

Acceptors in this state are not liable to the payment of damages.

Damages at the rate of five per cent only shall be allowed upon bills drawn by any person in this state, and payable at any place in this state, or in the city of New Orleans, which may be purchased by the Bank of the State of Alabama, or any of its branches, and returned protested.

The rules of the law-merchant govern as to days of grace, demand, and notice, in regard to notes and other instruments payable in bank, as well as to bills of exchange.

PROMISSORY NOTES.

Promissory notes always import a consideration until the contrary is shown. Those payable in bank are negotiable. Cotton receipts also (receipts given by gin and warehouse holders, upon the deposition of cotton) are upon the same footing as to negotiability with inland bills of exchange.

All other promissory notes, bonds, obligations, and writings for the payment of money, may be assigned and suit brought by assignee, subject, however, to any offsets possessed against the same by the defendant previous to notice of assignment.

Endorsed notes must be sued at the first term after they become due, otherwise the endorser is discharged.

It is necessary to prosecute the maker of the notes last mentioned to insolvency, before recourse can be had upon the endorsers; but when judgment is obtained by any assignee or endorsee against the maker, and execution returned, "no property found," action may be commenced against the assignor or endorser, and the returned *feri facias* will be proof of the insolvency of makers.

The owner of any note or instrument in writing which may be lost, may recover thereon, first making oath in writing as to its loss and non-payment, and proving its contents.

Notes and bills sent into this state for collection, ought always to be accompanied by the protests, expressing in the certificate when and how notice was given, and if sent by mail, to what office; the certificate itself being admissible in evidence.

STATUTE OF LIMITATIONS.

Judgments may be revived by *scire facias* at any time within twenty years after rendition.

Every action for debt or covenant under seal must be commenced within sixteen years after such cause of action has accrued. Actions of debt or simple contract are limited to six years after cause of action accrues; those upon open account to three years.

Every real, possessory, ancestral, mixed, or other action for lands, must be commenced within thirty years after the right and title thereto has accrued.

In case the person entitled to institute any of the above actions is a minor, femme-covert, or insane, or the defendant is absent without the state when such action might be instituted, the statute will not run during the time any such disqualification exists.

INTEREST.

The legal rate of interest in this state is eight per cent, but banks are prohibited from taking more than six, except in certain cases when the state banks are allowing a greater per centage. Usurious contracts forfeit the interest and usury.

ESTATES.

In case of intestacy the wife of the deceased is entitled to one third of the estate, and if there are no children to one half; but if the estate is insolvent she is endowed with one third only of the real property.

Claims against the estate must be presented within eighteen months after probate or letters issued, or they are barred, with the usual exception of minors, &c., and at the expiration of that time distribution of the estate may be ordered by the court.

In case of insolvency after payment of debts due for the last sickness and funeral expenses, the estate shall be divided amongst the creditors *pro rata*, they first filing evidences of their claims in the clerk's office. When the heirs are non-residents, the court orders notice thereof to be published.

Every person of the age of twenty-one years, of sound mind, may dispose of his or her estate by will. All wills of real estate must be signed by the testator, or by some person in his presence and by his direction, and attested by three or more respectable witnesses. The widow, however, may waive the provision made by her in the will, and claim her dower, but in such cases she can receive no part of such provision, unless it plainly appear that the testator intended it in addition to her dower.

A will of personal property merely, will be good without witnesses.

To constitute a valid nuncupative will, the words spoken must have a

legal certainty, or be spoken during the last illness, and proved within six months.

The validity of any will may be contested by a bill in chancery within five years from the probate thereof.

Authenticated copies of wills proved according to the laws of any of the United States, or any foreign territory, touching estates in this state, may be admitted to probate here ; liable to be contested as the original might have been.

Wills proved and recorded in any county of this state for the space of one year, which may be required to be proved in any other of the United States to enable the executor and administrator to comply with its provisions, may be withdrawn.

EXECUTORS AND ADMINISTRATORS.

If no one qualifies within three months to administer upon the estate of the deceased, the sheriff will act *ex-officio* upon appointment by the court.

Letters of administration granted in other states will entitle the holder to sue for property in this state, if, before rendition of judgment, he produces in court a copy of the letters testamentary, duly authenticated according to the laws of the United States, and the certificate of some county clerk of this state, that such certificate has been duly recorded in his office ; and before he can receive any money he must, in addition, deposite in the county clerk's office such bond as the judge may direct, conditioned for the faithful discharge of his duties as administrator or executor.

CONVEYANCES.

All conveyances of real estate-must be acknowledged before some notary, justice, or clerk of the court, and recorded in the clerk's office of the county court ; and if not recorded within six months, they are void as to subsequent purchasers and creditors.

Any deed of real estate, lying in this state, and executed by persons residing without the same, can be admitted to record in the county where such estate may lie, if acknowledged or proved before any judge or justice of any court, or notary public, of the state or territory where the maker of such deed may be. Provided, that the certificate of such acknowledgment is accompanied by a certificate of the clerk of the court to which such judge or justice may belong, that such judge or justice is of such court, and that due faith and credit is to be given to any act done by them in their official character. The seal of such office, if such there be, ought also to be affixed.

No estate of a *femme-covert* in any lands in this state can pass by her deed, without a previous acknowledgment made by her on a private examination before some judge, justice, or clerk, that she signed and delivered the said deed freely, and without any fear, threats, or compulsion of her husband.

Twenty years uninterrupted adverse possession constitute a good title.

LETTERS OF ATTORNEY

Made without the state are valid here upon *proof* of the *signature*. We have no statutory enactment upon this point ; but it is advisable to have such letters authenticated by the same formalities as in the case of conveyances, where it is probable their authenticity will be contested.

LIEN.

Judgments are liens upon all real estate possessed at, and acquired within twenty years after, rendition of such judgment.

Mechanics have a lien upon buildings erected by them for labor and expense laid out thereon. Creditors of steamboats, or other water-craft, have a lien upon such boats for labor, materials, or stores furnished *within* this state. The lien is enforced by proceedings in the nature of a libel; laborers having the preference.

Ship-carpenters and joiners have also a lien upon all articles in their possession for work laid out thereon.

ART. IV.—THE TRADE OF FOREIGNERS IN RUSSIA.

1. THE privilege of trading in Russia is granted to foreigners not owing allegiance: 1st., as *settled* merchants, styled *foreign guests*; and 2d, as *travelling* merchants, making short residence. A foreign guest is a merchant, who, for the sake of carrying on a wholesale ex- and import trade, acquires a partial citizenship, and establishes a regular house at a seaport or frontier town. A travelling foreign merchant is any foreigner temporarily transacting wholesale business in Russia.

2. Neither description of merchants are allowed to transact business (in purchases or sales of merchandise) with others in the same position as themselves; both having to sell or barter their commodities to Russian merchants of the first and second guilds, or to trading peasants of the first and second classes only, and from such alone they have also to make their purchases of Russian produce. They are, therefore, barely allowed to sell what they import, and to export what they buy without speculation for resale on the spot.

3. Foreigners, not registered resident foreign agents, yet wishing to transfer their capital, their craft, art, or mastership to Russia, are allowed to erect fabrics and manufactories, and to get written up in the guilds, paying the dues attached thereto, without taking allegiance to Russia, for a term of ten years, at the expiration of which they are either bound to take allegiance or to sell their establishments. Such foreign manufacturers may deal in the articles they manufacture, according to the privilege of the guild they belong to.

4. To such foreign manufacturers the minister of finances is empowered to grant exemption from the guild-rates for three years, but this cannot be done more than once to the same party. If there be peculiarly important advantages to the empire in view from such an establishment, rendering it expedient to grant greater immunities to the owner, the minister of finance has first to make a report thereon to the council of state for obtaining his majesty's special consent thereto.

5. Foreigners not recognising allegiance to Russia, but having obtained certificates of free residence, are allowed to become members of the tradesmen's (tailors, shoemakers, smiths, &c.) guilds in any town or corporation of the empire, by applying to the local revenue officers. In such cases they are, according to the nature of their craft, subject to the municipal

regulations for practising them, established for Russian craftsmen, but remain exempt from military conscription, personal municipal services and the poll-tax, in lieu whereof they pay a special tax, and may besides obtain exemption therefrom also, for a certain time, as above stated.

6. Foreigners, working and assisting at fabrics and manufactories, may reside in Russia, with proper certificates, without being written up in any tradesmen's guild or paying any tax whatever, a certificate of free residence being granted by the local authorities to every foreigner on his arrival, without any expense, on his delivering up his passport, for the sole purpose of identifying who and what he is, and to what country he belongs.

7. A foreign merchant, having taken up residence at a seaport or frontier town, with the intention of establishing a house there, becomes a foreign guest, and entitled to the privilege of trade by getting written up in, and procuring the license of, the first guild, paying the annual rates attached thereto, with the local taxes due to the town, without becoming a burgher of the corporation. On producing his license at the town-house, for registration as a guest, he has to sign a declaration that nobody else residing in Russia is in co-partnership with him in trade; every full and responsible partner having to be licensed for himself, and foreigners not being allowed to be in partnership with Russian subjects.*

8. A foreign guest is not allowed to transport or forward goods from his place of residence to other towns or places of the empire for sale on his own account, except to the Korennaya, Nishney, Novgorod, and Irbit fairs.

9. A foreign guest may travel, and make purchases of produce and manufactures for exportation throughout the empire from Russian merchants, landed proprietors, and peasants, trading by licenses of the first and second guilds and classes; and he may transport goods so bought to the seaport or frontier town where he is established, for exportation from thence.

10. A foreign guest may import goods not prohibited, for disposing of them by wholesale upon 'change or in the town where he is written up, and at the three fairs before-mentioned; but he is not allowed, either himself, or through his clerks, to make sales by retail.

11. A foreign guest may acquire, establish, and own fabrics and manufactories in the interior only by special permission, obtained from his majesty the emperor, in consideration of the acknowledged utility of such establishments.

12. A foreign guest, being a manufacturer, may import the materials, engines, and utensils required for his own establishment; and he may sell the articles he manufactures, not only on his own premises, but also in other towns, by wholesale; besides exporting them on account of himself, or of any other person, in his own name, or in that of a Russian or foreign merchant.

13. A foreign guest may transact bill business with foreign parts, but he cannot enter into inland bill business with Russian merchants of the third guild, with peasants of the third and fourth classes, nor with simple burghers, being in this respect restricted to the first and second guilds and classes.

14. A foreign guest may possess houses and lands (without glebe ad-

* See Co-partnery, which will be published in the next number of this Magazine.

scripti) in Russia, and must in every respect conform himself to the laws of the country.

15. A travelling merchant may transact wholesale business upon the exchange and within the customhouse circuit of a seaport or frontier town, or at any of the three fairs named in §8, for a term of six months from his arrival, without being written up or paying any guild-rates or taxes (except the im- and export duties,) the authorities on the frontier having endorsed the date of his arrival on his passport.

16. A travelling merchant, making a longer stay than six months at such exchange or market for transacting his business, has to procure a license of the second guild, and to pay the town dues connected therewith. If he reside at such market longer than a twelvemonth from his arrival, he is then bound to get inscribed into the class of foreign guests, and to provide himself with a license of the first guild in due form, otherwise he must either leave the country or reside as a mere foreigner without trade.

17. A travelling merchant is presumed to make only one importation of goods, contemporarily with his arrival, for sale during the first six or twelve months of his residence, and not to repeat the transaction without going home again, as this would be contrary to the spirit of the law, and is accordingly prohibited. During the six or twelve months he may make what purchases of export goods he pleases, for shipment in his own name, being barely confined to transacting all his business with Russian merchants of the first and second guilds, and trading peasants of the first and second classes. These regulations refer also to agents of foreign merchants, supercargoes, and ship-masters.

18. The children of foreigners, not recognising allegiance, though born in Russia, remain foreigners too, by their fathers' right.

19. In the course of time many foreigners, settled in Russia, have taken allegiance there, in order to enjoy the full immunities of Russian merchants. The law allows every foreigner, after having become, and resided as, a Russian subject, to return again to his mother country, resuming his natural allegiance, after having given notice of such intention to the Russian government, and paid a certain duty on the property he takes away with him.

20. Britons are held in very high estimation, both by the Russian government and the nation at large, being known as individuals of wealth, of respectable character, and as well-informed, clever, and industrious merchants, manufacturers, and tradesmen, carrying on an extensive commerce, and minding their own business, without transgressing against the laws of the country, or engaging in contraband and other illegitimate trades.

21. The sole object of what is called the British Factory at St. Petersburg is to regulate certain private principles and arrangements relative to some rates of charges on goods, the concerns of their church and private poor fund, their widows and heirs, in which respects questions of British law belong to the jurisdiction of the British embassy and consulates, no Russian subject being interested therein.

We shall proceed in the next number of the Merchants' Magazine to a short explanation of the Russian law of co-partnery in trade.

ART. V.—THE CURRENCY.

ON A GOVERNMENT PAPER, AND ON THE CONNECTION EXISTING BETWEEN THE PAPER-MONEY SYSTEM AND THE TARIFF.

SINCE the publication of my article in the last number of this Magazine, in which I suggested a plan for the establishment of a national paper currency, upon the supposition only that it be correct for congress to direct the issue of paper, (and which is in part the substance of an essay, written a year since, of which Dr. A. Potter speaks in his Political Economy,) the cabinet has produced a plan for a government paper, concerning which, and the banking system in conjunction with which it is intended to operate, I venture to make a few suggestions. Before making them I would remark, that a government paper-money could be recommended only in cases when the government is compelled to make a loan. The question, whether, in case the proceeds of the public lands had been retained, this necessity would have existed in this time of general peace, I leave to the decision of others, and confine myself to the main subject; observing only, that when the necessity for a loan exists, a government issue saves the payment of interest on the loan. In this way a considerable amount of the interest on the immense loans of the English government could have been saved, if they had issued such a part of it as would have been proportionate to their credit.

The board of exchequer, together with its agents, shall have the capacity, according to the cabinet's plan—first, of *issuing*, and secondly, of *discounting* paper.* In so far as the arrangements for the *issue* are concerned, I find no objections, since my own views on that subject, as expressed in my previous article, coincide with them, viz: that the men appointed to issue the paper, and this issue itself, be under the control of congress, so as to avoid the so-called union of purse and sword; and that, in order to avoid the danger of an *over-issue*, the amount should be decreed by congress, that those who are appointed for making the issue should make a full register of it, revised by congress, and that all bills issued should be countersigned by the secretary of the treasury, etc.: but concerning the *discounting* of the proposed plan of exchequer, I venture to express the following doubts; and in order to sustain my reasons, I must be permitted to begin with an apparent digression.

It is sufficiently known, and demonstrated in my former article, that all the dangers and evils of paper money, produced by the continual expansions and contractions, originate from the *over-issue*; that is, issuing to a greater amount than the capability of ever-ready redemption. All evils of paper money are therefore to be cured in this one common point—the issue. In order that the check against those evils which we wish to avoid before they take place, should be *preventive* rather than *corrective*, the checking remedy must exist in the nature of the issue itself. A sure check can only exist, if the *self-interest* of those issuing the paper obliges them always *carefully to confine their issues below their capabilities of redeeming*. In order to show the truth of what has been said by examples,

* The praiseworthy provisions for the safe-keeping of the public money, I do not consider in this article, since my subject has only to do with that part of the cabinet's plan which intends the establishment of a government paper.

I shall compare the fundamental principle of the Scotch with the American banking system. The decided superiority over all other of the Scotch banking by unincorporated companies—each member of which is responsible, in his whole personal and real estate, for all the debts contracted by the company, consequently for the whole of paper issued—consists in this fact, that according to this system, self-interest operates as the desired check, and compels the bankers to confine their issue within the limits of ever-ready redemption, so as to avoid their ruin. The interest with this system is, a *careful confinement or curtailment of the issue*; the interest with the American banking is, *the utmost expansion of the issue*, or in other words the *over-issue*—that very danger we wish to avoid: it contains in its principles therefore the germ of its destruction. The present American banks, as every one knows, issue in competition with other banks as much paper as possible, in order to make large profits during the time of specie payments, as well as during the time of suspension, when they also gain by the discounting of their notes done by their agents, since no evil accrues to themselves by their suspension, being by favor above the law, like sovereign princes. Over-issue and its too well-known consequences follow, therefore, necessarily from the very nature of this system; and since such is the case, they will ever follow, just so long as this system exists, no matter what legislative provisions may be made concerning them.*

In the Scotch banking system is self-interest, the true checking principle against the over-issue, developed; and a long series of years of its sound operation have proved its intrinsic value, as worthy of imitation, to the world.

A government paper has by its nature that disadvantage, in comparison with the Scotch private banking, that with the first self-interest does not operate as a check against the over-issue, since those who direct the issue—as here, congress—and those who make the issue, in the name of the government—as here, the intended exchequer board—have nothing to lose by the over-issue. The natural check here would be the *self-interest of the people*, who would lose by an over-issue, and consequently, the self-interest of those directing the issue, not to risk their popularity by a disastrous over-issue, and not to risk a final bankruptcy and dishonor towards the government. But since the responsibility in this respect is divided amongst a *great number* of men, *changing* in power, self-interest operates here less powerfully than with private bankers after the Scotch plan. The danger of an over-issue, in case of a government paper, is in itself consequently greater, and becomes still greater, if the expectation of gain, by *discounting* with such paper, is held out. Then interest stimulates to

* I here speak only of the comparative value of the systems, neither for nor against bankers and stockholders; what regards the latter—they in some of the eastern states, as New York and Massachusetts etc., deserve for their prudence during the last years of difficulties, the highest praise: it is the system itself which prevails throughout the states, that is to be reformed. If *truth* should clash against the *interest* of some, they must blame truth, not me; or rather they must reconcile *their* interests with the true interests of the country. Truth and justice have always been, throughout all history, and seem ever to be, at war with the interests of those men who pervert the true condition of society to their advantage, against the interest of weaker people.

expansion or over-issue, as is above shown in the present American banking. This would offer a great temptation ; since the voice of the speculators, among the constituents of the members of congress, would continually demand an increasing and even an over-abundant issue, which, in the course of time, might make it difficult for congress properly to restrict the issue within such limits, as thereby to protect its own reputation and the standing of the government paper against distrust, and individual property and contracts against unjust fluctuations in value. No discounting whatever ought to be done by any government officers—merely the issuing. It is only by keeping the issuing and discounting business entirely separate, that we can avoid the inducement to an over-issue, and of continual and consequent expansions and contractions. Those who make and direct the issue should have no interest in the quantity of paper issued ; only by this condition, can we hope that prudence, and a due regard to their own and the government's honor, might operate as some check against an over-issue.

In order to illustrate my remarks by facts, I annex the following account of the government paper money of Prussia. This paper money has no other basis than the credit of the government, which stands pledged to redeem the issued notes with its own resources ; and as its paper was issued only for paying national debts, on which *interest* accrued, and by that means converting them into debts on which *no* interest accrues, and as this paper was given for value already received, and consequently not coming into possession of any new receipts, the government was not concerned in any business of *discounting*, but only of *issuing*—*discounting* of all kinds being done by *private citizens*. The paper issued for the payment of this national debt amounts to twenty-five million two hundred and fifty thousand thalers, (each thaler about seventy-six cents,) for the redemption of which the annual revenue of fifty million thalers is pledged. This is the only paper money in circulation in Prussia, since the government alone issues, no private citizen or company being allowed that privilege. The amount of specie in circulation in the country amounts to about one hundred millions thalers. The amount of issue is fixed by law, and is made by persons appointed by the government, of the highest respectability and standing, who are disinterested with respect to the amount issued, and their books are again examined by the highest members of government, so that the *danger of an over-issue does not exist*. The government ever has held itself ready to redeem the paper, and has never failed ; and on account of this promptitude, the redemption has never been demanded, except when in the wars with France the political existence of Prussia itself was doubted by some faint-hearted holders of the notes.

The greater part of the issues are in large notes, although there are some of five and one thaler. A part of the duties and taxes must be paid, and all can be paid, with this money, which is continually on *par* with specie, not only throughout the kingdom of Prussia, but throughout the whole Germanic league of commerce.

Prussia has been always careful to confine its issues below its capabilities of redemption ; this has been the case as well in the urgent necessities of war, as in its present state of peace and prosperity. The reputation of this paper is owing to this cautiousness not to *over-issue*, and their promptitude to redeem it. Although in that country, as in any other, the voice of business men and speculators continually demands an abundant is-

sue, yet the government has restricted itself to the issue already made, and has thereby protected its own reputation and individual property and contracts against unjust and disastrous fluctuations of value. In this it was warranted by the principle, that no one can honorably transfer to another the *power* of purchasing which he himself does not possess.

If a government issues a greater amount than it evidently is capable of redeeming, the supposition necessarily arises that the intention could not be to redeem it at par, and the specie value of such paper becomes uncertain, and it falls, sinking deeper and deeper with each new issue. This was the case with Austria, who, by such management during her last war with France, greatly depreciated the value of her paper money, to the material injury of the people. The great natural resources and riches of the Austrian empire, made it possible to endure such a depreciation produced by over-issue.

With these remarks I conclude the discussion of the main object of my article: I merely append some observations on two important subjects intimately connected with the credit system.

In the first place, one thing which will have an important bearing on the credit system in this country, is the perfection of steam power, which in its infancy, even like a Hercules, performs marvellous deeds. By it this country has been brought in so close contact with England, that the capitalists of the latter will soon become better acquainted with the rich natural resources of this country, which invite to the profitable investment of capital, provided that strict faith, the basis of credit, is kept on both sides.

On the second subject I have already touched in my previous article—the connection existing between the paper-money system and the tariff; to which, in order not to be misunderstood, I must add a few words. If, by an over-issue of paper money, in such countries as intend to use the tariff as a protection of their home industry, prices rise above their customary level, merchants will take advantage of it, on finding that they can import abundantly with profit, over and above the payment of duties, from foreign countries where no artificial paper system swells the prices to an equally unnatural extent. In that case the tariff operates no longer as a protection. If, for instance, prices rise forty or sixty per cent, which is no uncommon occurrence during an over-issue of paper money, and if those articles are protected by a duty of twenty per cent, the importer gains still a handsome profit, after having paid the duty; and the producer, for whose benefit the protection was intended, must sell his products with a loss, or cannot sell them at all, in the competition of the market. Therefore, where the tariff is intended as a protection, there also *the standard of value must be as stable as possible*. Strange it appears, that the same persons in this country who are for a high tariff, frustrate the latter by their demand for an abundant issue of paper. If the producers understood rightly their own interest, they would not be in favor of such issuing; the speculators only can be in favor of the latter. In regard to the nature of the tariff itself, a *revenue* tariff, with a protection only of those branches of industry which are *natural* to this country, and as such have acquired a sound flourishing state, seems to reconcile the conflicting interests. By *protection* is not to be understood a duty equal to a prohibition, as England has imposed on some articles—for this would annihilate the idea of a *revenue*—but only such a duty, that the existing branches of industry can stand in competition, and may not be brought to ruin. A protecting duty ought

only to be so high, that after its payment, some foreign goods can be imported ; this preserves the stimulus of competition, which induces the producers to exert themselves.* Those branches of industry that are *natural* to this country, and which are worthy of such a protection, appear to be, for instance—the manufacture of the more heavy and coarse wares, of iron, cotton, etc. ; not that they cannot manufacture finer articles, but that a more successful competition can be sustained in the manufacture of coarser ware, in consideration of the expense of exportation of the raw material, and the importation of the manufactured articles, and the duties to be paid on them, which will more than counterbalance the higher wages of laborers in this country, since particularly females with lower wages are employed so extensively in the cotton factories. By the latter, the south will secure a home market, if England should succeed in procuring a great part of her supplies of cotton from the East Indies. But to produce and call forth artificially branches of industry, and to imitate the example of England, and to form a class of manufacturing laborers, suffering like the English, can certainly not be the policy for a country holding out so strong inducements for investments in agriculture, where industry is surely and richly rewarded, without the sacrifice of health, and without the contaminating influences of a dense manufacturing population. The agriculturists of this country—under which I include all who produce the raw material, the lords of their lands—are happier than the manufacturers of England, and seem to be the very pride of this country. It is evidently for their advantage to purchase their articles for consumption as cheap as possible, and therefore it is for their interest to patronise free trade. With an increasing population and wealth, manufactories will naturally grow, as competition for labor will be abundantly added to the vast natural resources of this country. But since all do not prefer the occupation of agriculturists, and since the natural inclination and talent ought to be consulted and regarded in such questions, and since some Americans, like the English, seem to desire the manufacturing business, the above-mentioned views in regard to a tariff seem to be demanded ; but we must recollect, that whatever is done in the way of protection for the manufacturers, is a sacrifice to their advantage by the whole people. The interests of this country are in this respect very similar to those of Prussia, of whose tariff I have spoken in No. 3 of the Northern Light, to which I refer on this point.

I coincide, of course, with the truths of political economy, in regard to the subject of free trade ; and would consider therefore a revenue tariff as only justifiable, if the artificial condition and policy of other countries, particularly of England, did not disturb the practical application of those truths. I shall here endeavor to give in a few words my solution of this much agitated problem in political economy, viz :—What in this situation a country in favor of free trade ought to do. Many, in their solutions of this—as for instance Say—have advised a strict adherence to the principles of free trade ; but I think they have not correctly considered the actual position of England, overruling in manufactures.

If England would receive the raw material of other countries for food, and as a supply for her extensive manufactories, *free from duty*, it would

* In Prussia, a general *ad valorem* duty of ten per cent operates as a sufficient protection and revenue.

be the interest of this country, and of some of the countries of Europe, to produce on their extensive, rich soil *those raw materials*, and to purchase the manufactured goods as cheap as possible, consequently *free of duty*. Then England would naturally be, not only the principal, but also, by the better condition of her laborers, a much more happy manufacturing country for the greater part of the world ; to which her industry, her immense manufacturing capital, skill, coal mines, geographical position, etc., seem to have designed her. But until the landed interest of England agrees on better terms with other countries, the latter must seek for a sure home market of their surplus of raw material by artificial home manufactories ; but by such means, added to the saving of transportation and duties, as do not cost a greater sacrifice to the people, than the home market for that surplus of raw material benefits the country at large. If under this limitation we will have manufactories, we must consider the great manufacturing capital, machinery, skill, and consequent rapid execution of the demands of consumers, (now so swiftly communicated by steam,) and other advantages which England possesses in advance of other countries in that branch of industry, and then we shall easily perceive, that without protection, other countries just commencing that business cannot grow or be sustained in it, if they are not so situated, like Saxony and Switzerland, that by the cheapness of wages and the abundance and proximity of the material, (as for instance, in Saxony, of wool,) they can undersell the English with an equally good article ; in which case no protection is necessary, but would be even injurious, since it would increase the prices of every thing, and consequently of wages and of manufactured articles, so that it would be no longer possible to undersell their English competitors.

ART. VI.—LIGHTS AND SHADOWS OF MERCANTILE LIFE.

I. THE CONFIDENTIAL CLERK.

And, in a word, but even now worth this,
And now worth nothing. Shall I have the thought
To think on this ?— *Merchant of Venice.*

“HAVE you heard any thing about those drafts on Pierce and Lanham, Hawkins ?” was the inquiry of Mr. Ockham, as he entered his counting-room “after 'change,” one day during the spring of 1837.

“Nothing, sir,” was the prompt but quiet reply of his confidential clerk, as with a countenance somewhat pale, and a slightly tremulous hand, he laid upon the desk of his employer several bank notices of an early date, and to a large amount.

“Indeed, Hawkins, but that is strange,” replied the merchant, in a tone that faltered a little—“what have you there ?”

The clerk laid another paper upon the desk, and returned to his labors. That peculiar but expressive stillness, which sometimes pervades the counting-rooms of large mercantile houses, was here broken only by the guarded movements of the clerks, as with clock-work regularity and despatch they answered the various calls from the sales-room. After a moment of anxious suspense, Mr. Ockham again summoned his confidential clerk to his desk.

"Hawkins, what can this mean?" He pointed to a protested note for a very large amount, drawn in his favor, and bearing his own endorsement.

"These are dreadful times, sir," said the clerk, in a deep, anxious tone.

"Well!" added the merchant quickly, and fixing his brilliant but troubled eye upon the countenance of the other.

"I trust indeed, sir, there is some mistake here," replied Hawkins, almost unconsciously.

"Mistake, Hawkins! these men are not apt to make mistakes—impossible."

"What is to be done then, sir?"

"For us, you know, but one thing is to be done, in this case. The paper must be withdrawn from the bank forthwith—can we raise the money?"

The clerk shook his head doubtingly.

"Our friends in Wall-street," replied Mr. Ockham—"it is our last resort, for I looked over the bank account yesterday; and you know we have calculated closely, even for two months to come. Let me see—those drafts—but these are already applied to take care of our own paper."

"True indeed, sir, and my success yesterday was so indifferent that I almost despair of the ordinary sources. The money may be had, perhaps, in Wall-street, at a rate beyond—"

"Never, Hawkins, never. I will not dishonor myself—I will not risk the future reproaches of a conscience which is now clear, by resorting to such desperate and sinful means; for *sinful* they are, and in these times doubly so—when we know not how long we may escape the general overthrow."

"Then, Mr. Ockham," replied the clerk, "we must try our friends once more. I will do my utmost."

"Thank you—be prompt then, for it is now 2 o'clock. I will be at home at eight."

Hawkins put up his books and departed on his mission, with what results an hour was to determine.

* * * * * The evening came. In his quiet family parlor, in the midst of a small but happy domestic circle, which was indeed a *world* to him, sat William Hawkins, relieved for a brief but blissful period from the toils and anxieties of business. But what a different man from him we saw in the morning, in that still, dingy counting-room! The countenance then so pale and anxious was now radiant with smiles, and his eye shone with the innocent and unrestrained gayety of an honest and generous heart. One lovely child, a beautiful little girl of six years, his only child, sat upon his knee. Her innocent prattle had long ago driven away all the grim shadows which haunted his spirit during the day.

"When shall we go live in the country, father?" was one question among the thousand which fell from her lips—new ones being conceived before the old were answered.

"When?" replied the father, turning to his wife with a smile—"why, when the birds come and the flowers."

"Oh, the pretty birds, and the sweet flowers!" exclaimed the happy little girl, throwing her arms around his neck and kissing him—"mother, how glad I am!"

"So am I, my love," replied the mother—exceedingly youthful and in-

teresting in her appearance, but on whose countenance the traces of recent sickness were too plainly visible. "Is it indeed so, William?"

"Yes, my dear; I am now in hopeful treaty for that pleasant little place at Ravenswood, which we visited last summer, and should have concluded the purchase some days ago, as I told you, had I not been terrified at what I still consider an extravagant price. But I think we shall get it on such terms as we can afford. Nay, Mary, I ought to pay any price within my means, when the restoration of your health is in question."

"Thank you, my dear, you are too kind!" and she bent over the book she was reading, that her husband might not see the grateful tears that were starting to her eyes.

The mantel-clock struck the hour for family worship. William Hawkins sat down to the scriptures, and after a chapter feelingly read, he offered up, as the priest of the little household which God had committed to his keeping, the simple but eloquent prayers which his church had provided.

"Mother," said little Emily, as her mother took her hand, in preparation for retiring, "will it be any harm if I dream about our country-house to-night?"

"No, my dear," replied the mother, "but you must not forget your prayers, for God will bless only those that love and serve him."

The little girl clambered upon her father's knee to receive his parting kiss, and in a few moments she left the room with her mother.

A note had been left upon the table by the servant on retiring from prayers, which he now opened. A sickly change came over his countenance as he read the contents. The negotiation for funds, which he had considered as almost settled at three o'clock, could not be effected.

"What is the matter, my dear?" said his wife, as she took her seat by his side. He raised his head from his hands, and sighed deeply.

The cause of his trouble was soon explained.

"What *can* we do, Mary?" he added. "I have tried every source, and ten thousand dollars are yet wanting. These are awful times, and I fear for the result. We were prepared for some disappointment, but this is crushing. Had *I* the money—"

The pale face of his wife became suddenly illuminated with a beautiful enthusiasm.

"William, you *have*—you have *all* that is needed."

Hawkins looked at her for a moment, and the glow began to kindle upon his own cheek. He sighed again, as he took her hand and replied, "Noble woman, I understand you, and such a thing may be due to my generous employer. But Mary, think, in these times we risk our all—and then what is to become of our country project?"

"William, I can cheerfully give this up for the present year, if necessary. Let us prove to Mr. Ockham that we are grateful. Remember what we were when he employed you. Nay, William," she added, as her beautiful eyes filled with tears, "let him have it if we lose it all. At the worst, we shall have the income from my aunt's legacy, which will be enough for our simple wants."

"Four hundred dollars, my dear, is—"

"Well, William, have we not lived for years on a less sum?"

"But our daughter—"

Mrs. Hawkins raised her eyes, involuntarily, to heaven. Her husband understood the mute but eloquent appeal. He hesitated no longer.

"My dear, it shall be done, if necessary. A noble benefactor has Mr. Ockham been to us, and he should be served with our best. My hour for calling upon him has arrived. Farewell, I will be at home by nine."

St. John's had just struck eight when the clerk gained entrance to the house of Mr. Ockham. The merchant was in his private chamber, and desired to see him there. As he ascended the stairs he caught a glimpse of a large and happy family circle through the open parlor-door. He scarcely knew why, but his heart sank within him as he passed.

Mr. Ockham was pacing the floor as he entered. He stopped and extended an open letter to his clerk as he entered, saying, as he did so—

"Hawkins, the express has brought me rather an unwelcome gift."

Hawkins saw the contents at a single glance, and grew suddenly pale.

"Dishonored, sir?"

"Dishonored.—Hawkins, there is no trust in *man*." He said this with bitter emphasis. "That and the protest together—but have you succeeded?"

"The Whipples are short themselves, but—"

"But what—come to the point."

"I hope the money can be had."

"Hope—I am sick of hope. Two hopes among the fairest have been blighted in one day. I must have certainties now—or—or—you know the consequence, Hawkins!"

"You misunderstand me, sir. I know that the money can be had. Ten or twelve thousand will cover the demand—it is yours."

"When, and on what terms?"

"It will be subject to your check to-morrow, sir, and as for the terms—" He hesitated.

"The terms—you hesitate—have you been dabbling with the two-per-centers? Have you dared, after what I have said this morning—"

"Mr. Ockham!" responded the clerk proudly, and his cheek and brow became suddenly suffused with crimson. There was sorrow, anger, and wounded pride in the unflinching glance with which he met Mr. Ockham's gleaming eye.

"Nay, pardon me," replied the merchant, while his own cheek colored with shame at the ungenerous supposition, "these times try all tempers, and I was hasty—but the terms, man, the terms."

"The terms may be as you please, Mr. Ockham."

"Nay, Hawkins, I can't understand this. Where is the money to come from?"

"It is lodged in the Bank of America, in my name, and I shall transfer it to your account in the morning."

The truth flashed at once upon the mind of the merchant. He knew the other's circumstances—he knew his plans—his cherished desire in regard to the country-house. For the first time he was overcome in the presence of his clerk. He sat down silently, motioning Hawkins to be seated, and more than one large tear appeared on his cheek. The impulses of a generous nature, thoroughly awakened by one artless, but master-touch of sympathy, struggled for a moment with his professional pride, and for a moment only.

"Hawkins, you distress me," he exclaimed: "and will you make this sacrifice, will you—I will not mince matters—inour this hazard for me? No, no, my generous fellow, any thing but that."

"Mr. Ockham," replied the other, "you will give me deep pain if you refuse me. Ten times the sum even, if it should please Him, in whom we both trust, to scatter ruin upon your noble house, could not repay the debt I owe you!"

"But your wife and child. No, William, I cannot think of it."

"My wife, sir, taught me the lesson which I have attempted thus feebly to repeat. Our sleep will be all the sweeter if we know that yours is peaceful. Allow me to speak plainly, Mr. Ockham. I believe before heaven, that it is as much your duty to accept this poor service at my hands, as it is mine to give it. I can never think that it is the will of God that you, nobly useful as you are, should be sacrificed through the recklessness of desperate and unprincipled men, so long as I have an arm to defend you from ruin."

Mr. Ockham made no immediate reply. He arose and paced the floor for a few minutes with hurried steps. At length he returned and took the hand of his clerk.

"William, you must have security. Let my attorney execute a mortgage upon this house; and let it be prepared by ten to-morrow. So, good-night. Nay, no scruples," he added, as he saw the peculiar expression upon the countenance of the other: "does this give you pain—have it then upon your own terms, but let the mortgage be prepared at any rate."

The slumbers of the merchant and his clerk that night were alike peaceful and refreshing. But an angry cloud was gathering in the commercial horizon, with what elements charged we shall see perhaps.

MERCANTILE ENGAGEMENTS.

A man of business, without his diary or engagement book, is like a body without a soul—incapable of action. To have a perfect and complete register of all your engagements for days and weeks to come, is no indifferent matter to any one who desires to be punctual and prepared for them, especially when the means are at hand. One of the first principles with the tradesman should be, *not* to depend upon his recollection for any thing. If orders arrive—if bills are to be paid or received—if appointments are made for any purpose whatever—in fact, if any thing is *to be done*, set it down in writing. To do this, however, with advantage, it must be, like every thing else, done by system; for an irregular and heterogeneous mass of memoranda can be of no use to any one. The arrangement should be such as to insure *prompt* information. For this purpose, prepare a small book ruled with divisions for each day in the week, and arrange the days, dates, and months, according to the nature and extent of your engagements. In this book, enter in advance every appointment that has been made; every thing that has *to be done*; and all moneys that are to be paid or received on particular days. By turning to this diary every morning *regularly*, the business of the day will be at once apparent, and nothing can, by any possibility, be forgotten or overlooked.—*Foster*.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

RECENT DECISIONS IN THE UNITED STATES COURTS.*

TARIFF—GUNNY BAGS.

United States Circuit Court.—(Boston.)—October term, 1841.—*Henry Lee vs. Levi Lincoln, Collector; Peabody vs. the same.*—Both the above actions were brought to recover the duties paid, under protest, on *gunny bags*, charged as *cotton bagging*. It appeared in evidence from several merchants engaged in the East India trade, that gunny, or gunny cloth, was known in commerce by that name previous to the passage of the tariff imposing duties upon cotton bagging—but that gunny cloth and cotton bagging were distinct articles; and an order for cotton bagging would not, in their opinion, have been satisfied by sending gunny cloth. It was further in evidence, that the two articles are appropriated to very similar uses, and that, of late years, gunny cloth has become a very common material for cotton bags, but still was and is considered a distinct article from cotton bagging.

Judge Story instructed the jury that in order to charge gunny bags with the duty to which cotton bagging is subject, it was necessary for the government to show that the articles are the same and not different, and known in commerce by different names. The tariff being an act regulating commerce, its terms were to be construed according to commercial usage and the understanding attached to them among merchants. It was of no consequence that cotton bagging and gunny bags were applied to similar uses, provided they were known in commerce as distinct things, and the commercial sense of the term "cotton bagging" was different from that of "gunny bags." If they believed this to be the case, then gunny bags did not come within the terms of the law imposing a duty on cotton bagging, and were not chargeable with the duty as such.

The jury immediately returned a verdict for the plaintiffs. It is understood that twenty-three other actions, involving the same point, are now pending in the circuit court for the first circuit. The duties have been insisted upon by the collector, under instructions from the treasury department, and paid under protest by the importers.

COLLISION.

United States District Court.—*District of Massachusetts.*—Albert Hersey, libellant, *vs. Steamer North America.*—This was a case of maritime collision, and the facts will sufficiently appear from the decision of Judge Sprague, which was, in substance, as follows:—The collision took place on the night of the 21st of August, about 9 o'clock, near Half-way Rock, off Cape Ann, between the steamer North America, bound from Boston to St. Johns, and the sloop Quincy, of Hingham, bound from Rockport (near Gloucester) to Boston. The libellants charge that the respondents were in fault and guilty of gross carelessness, while the respondents state that they did not see the sloop, by reason of the darkness, until within a minute and a half before they struck. The steamer, having her steam up, is to be taken to be a vessel sailing with a fair wind, and it is also to be taken that the sloop was not in fact seen in season to avoid her.

The first question is, was there a good look-out kept up on board the steamer? The evidence on this point comes from the captain, mate, and pilot of the steamer. The pilot states that he and the mate were stationed on the upper deck for the express purpose of keeping a good look-out, which they did. The pilot first saw the Quincy, and sprang into the wheel-house to assist the helmsman to avoid her. The mate's testimony

* Reported for the Merchants' Magazine, by A. C. Spooner, Esq. of the Boston Bar.

concur with that of the pilot. Two of the men also say that they were keeping a look-out on the lower deck of the steamer, but did not see the sloop until after they heard the pilot cry out. Here are four witnesses to the point that a good look-out was kept up on board the steamer, and they are uncontradicted. This point is thus far established.

But it is urged by the libellants that the mere fact of the collision, under the circumstances, proves that a proper look-out was not kept up on board the steamer, as the night was a clear, starlit night, and the sloop could have been seen half a mile off. Was this the case? On this point the testimony was exceedingly contradictory. The captain of a vessel which sailed from Rockport about an hour before the Quincy testifies that the night was clear, and not thick or close, and those on board the Quincy state the same; while all on board the steamer concur in testifying the contrary. How can this evidence be reconciled? Two of those on board the sloop state that there was a heavy cloud along the horizon from southwest to northeast. The two vessels were sailing in opposite directions—one rather towards the cloud, the other away from it—and this *may* account for the difference of opinion as to the night. Be this as it may, it does not appear on the whole, that the collision was the result of negligence, but of pure accident, and the libel must be dismissed. But, as the libellants do not seem to have been in fault in bringing it, let it be dismissed without costs.

INTERESTING QUESTION OF COPYRIGHT.

United States Circuit Court.—(Boston.)—Charles Folsom and als. vs. Marsh, Capen, Lyon & Webb, and Upham.—This was a bill in equity, for an injunction upon the firm of Marsh, Capen, Lyon & Webb, booksellers and publishers, and the Rev. Charles W. Upham, the author of a Life of Geo. Washington, to restrain them from selling said work, on the ground that it was an invasion of the copyright of “Sparks’ Life and Writings of Washington,” belonging to the plaintiffs.

It appeared from the report of Geo. S. Hilliard, Esq., the master in chancery to whom the matter was referred, that Sparks’ work consists of 12 vols. 8vo.—the first containing the Life, and the remainder the Writings of Washington. The work of defendants consists of 2 vols. 12mo., containing in the whole 790 pages, including a glossary and index of sixteen pages; that 353 pages of defendants’ work is taken verbatim from the last eleven volumes of Sparks’ work, 319 of which had appeared before in print, and the remainder, though they had been previously printed, yet in the plaintiffs’ work they varied from former publications. Of the 353 pages taken, 270 were private letters; the rest, public or official letters, including in this term letters to members of congress and governors of states.

It also appeared that Mr. Sparks had contracted for the use of Washington’s papers for publication, with Chief Justice Marshall and Judge Washington, (to whom they belonged,) prior to the commencement of his work, and that subsequently, the original papers of Washington had been purchased by the United States for \$25,000, reserving the rights already granted to Mr. Sparks.

It was contended for the defendants, that these papers were not the subject of copyright—

- 1st. Because they were the manuscripts of a person *deceased*.
- 2d. Because they were not properly *literary* productions.
- 3d. Because they were *public* in their nature.
- 4th. Because they were originally intended for public use.

The second ground taken for defendants was, that the title to these papers was in the United States and not in the plaintiffs.

The third ground assumed was, that, admitting the plaintiffs’ copyright in these papers

Mr. Upham's use of the work of Mr. Sparks in compiling his own was a fair, reasonable, and justifiable one.

Judge Story, in a very luminous and able opinion, in which he considers the whole subject of copyright at considerable length, decided the above points as follows :

1st. That the manuscripts of a deceased person pass like other property to his legal representatives, who succeed to all the rights which the author himself had in them.

2d. That these letters, (and the court would not say that *any* letters were not,) were so far literary productions as to be the subject of copyright.

3d. That although some of these letters were of a public character, and might, under certain circumstances, be published without the consent of their writer, yet the rule of law was, that the right of publication belonged exclusively to the writer, and any circumstances which would justify their publication without his consent must be such as would be sufficient to constitute an exception to the general rule.

4th. That these letters were intended for public use, though true in a limited sense, was not true to an extent which would prevent the writer from disposing of them in his lifetime, or by his will, as in this case.

5th. It was not true in the sense urged that the title to these papers was in the government of the United States ; for the sale to the United States was made subsequent and subject to the contract with Mr. Sparks.

6th. That though it was often difficult to draw the line between a justifiable and a piratical use of an author's work, yet, as Mr. Upham's selections had been made with so much skill, and the whole work was likely to be so acceptable to the general reader as greatly to prejudice the sale of Mr. Sparks' work, the court thought it an improper and illegal use of the latter work.

An injunction was accordingly granted to stay entirely the publication of Mr. Upham's work ; but the court refused to order the stereotype plates to be given up to the plaintiffs, saying that this was beyond the power of a court of equity to do.

CHARTER-PARTY.

Isaac W. Arthur and als. vs. Schooner Cassius and owners.—This was a libel against the schooner Cassius and owners, brought by the shippers of a quantity of lumber, to recover damages for a breach of the charter-party. The vessel took the lumber on board at New York, and sailed for Velasco, where it was to have been delivered. On arriving there, the captain, finding his vessel drew too much water to cross the bar, determined to float his cargo ashore in rafts. The consignee at first refused to receive it ; and the captain carried it to New Orleans and sold it there. There was some evidence tending to show that the consignee afterward consented to receive it.

In the district court judgment was given for the defendants, and the libellants appealed.

Judge Story delivered the opinion of the circuit court, to the effect,

1st. That there was no doubt that the respondents were liable in this suit, as the charter-party expressly bound the vessel.

2d. That the burden was on respondents to show a justifiable cause for deviating from the voyage and carrying the cargo to New Orleans and selling it. There was some doubt whether the consignee *did* finally refuse to receive it ; but even if he did, the captain might have landed and stored it, or he might have waited until he could get directions from the shippers ; at any rate, the refusal of the consignee did not create such a necessity as would justify the captain in carrying the cargo to New Orleans, and selling it there.

3d. That the true measure of damages was the value of the lumber at Velasco, deducting duties and charges, and also *the freight of it to Velasco* ; and the case was referred to an assessor to compute the damages agreeably to the above principle.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF NEW ORLEANS, FROM 1832 TO 1841.

Statement of the Tonnage of Vessels entered in the Port of New Orleans, during the years 1832 to 1841.

1832—1st quarter,...81,151 00	1837—1st quarter,..118,309 00
2d do. ...71,715 00	2d do. ...98,515 00
3d do. ...30,860 00	3d do. ...39,180 00
4th do. ...69,335 00	4th do. ..117,456 00
<u>253,061 00</u>	<u>373,460 00</u>
1833—1st quarter,...92,506 00	1838—1st quarter,..133,316 00
2d do. ...84,425 00	2d do. ..130,020 00
3d do. ...35,511 00	3d do. ...46,650 00
4th do. ...89,028 00	4th do. ..136,731 00
<u>301,470 00</u>	<u>446,717 00</u>
1834—1st quarter,...96,442 00	1839—1st quarter,..155,987 00
2d do. ...89,046 00	2d do. ...95,842 00
3d do. ...27,147 00	3d do. ...41,182 00
4th do. ...120,400 00	4th do. ..146,394 00
<u>333,035 00</u>	<u>439,405 00</u>
1835—1st quarter,..117,348 00	1840—1st quarter,..148,927 00
2d do. ...90,849 00	2d do. ..152,730 00
3d do. ...41,089 00	3d do. ...65,465 00
4th do. ...109,125 00	4th do. ..182,725 00
<u>358,411 00</u>	<u>549,847 00</u>
1836—1st quarter,...95,630 00	1841—1st quarter,..183,004 00
2d do. ...87,265 00	2d do. ..104,200 00
3d do. ...44,713 00	3d do. ...44,440 00
4th do. ...108,113 00	4th (estima.)190,000 00
<u>335,721 00</u>	<u>521,644 00</u>

Statement of the Tonnage of Vessels cleared from the Port of New Orleans, during the years 1832 to 1841.

1832—1st quarter,...86,159 00	1837—1st quarter,..139,983 00
2d do. ...93,031 00	2d do. ..118,668 00
3d do. ...41,348 00	3d do. ...53,613 00
4th do. ...46,979 00	4th do. ...73,139 00
<u>267,517 00</u>	<u>385,403 00</u>
1833—1st quarter,..103,637 00	1838—1st quarter,..163,732 00
2d do. ...96,996 00	2d do. ..133,259 00
3d do. ...35,105 00	3d do. ...60,721 00
4th do. ...55,260 00	4th do. ...74,718 00
<u>290,988 00</u>	<u>432,429 00</u>
1834—1st quarter,...98,305 00	1839—1st quarter,..154,321 00
2d do. ...118,242 00	2d do. ..170,387 00
3d do. ...39,564 00	3d do. ...51,193 00
4th do. ...71,142 00	4th do. ..108,030 00
<u>327,253 00</u>	<u>483,931 00</u>
1835—1st quarter,..129,529 00	1840—1st quarter,..193,136 00
2d do. ...119,639 00	2d do. ..153,352 00
3d do. ...46,279 00	3d do. ...76,320 00
4th do. ...52,033 00	4th do. ..119,429 00
<u>353,480 00</u>	<u>542,237 00</u>
1836—1st quarter,..118,747 00	1841—1st quarter,..182,901 00
2d do. ...113,906 00	2d do. ..176,206 00
3d do. ...54,029 00	3d do. ...58,862 00
4th do. ...77,819 00	4th (estima.)100,000 00
<u>364,501 00</u>	<u>517,969 00</u>

Statement of the Value of Goods, Wares and Merchandise, of the Growth, Produce and Manufacture, of the United States and Foreign Countries, exported from the City of New Orleans, from 1832 to 1841; as compiled at the customhouse, New Orleans, for the Merchants' Transcript.

RECAPITULATION OF THE FOREGOING TABLE.

Years.	In Amer. ves.	In For. ves.	Years.	In Amer. ves.	In For. ves.
1832	\$24,012,242	\$2,042,898	1833.....	\$56,540,610	\$2,105,012
1833.....	25,548,694	2,643,554	1840.....	47,052,980	1,281,855
1834.....	36,169,229	3,592,160	1841 (estimated)	57,543,318	1,575,995
1835.....	43,358,565	4,763,408			
1836.....	51,211,772	5,238,481		430,207,849	27,743,119
1837.....	44,605,831	3,067,633	Foreign vessels,	27,743,119	
1838.....	44,164,608	1,432,123			
Grand total exported,.....			\$457,950,968		

COTTON CROP OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statement and Total Amount of the Growth, Export, Consumption, etc., of Cotton, for the year ending 30th September, 1841.

Business of the Commercial Year of 1841.	Bales.	Bales.	TOTAL.			
			1841.	1840.		
NEW ORLEANS.						
Export—To foreign ports,.....	656,816	851,840	813,595	946,905		
Coastwise,.....	161,448					
Burnt and damaged,.....	2,000					
Stock on hand, 1st October, 1841,.....	31,576					
Deduct—Stock on hand, 1st October, 1840,.....	27,911	38,245			1,085	6,767
Received from Mobile,.....	5,418					
do. do. Florida,.....	508					
do. do. Texas,.....	4,408					
MISSISSIPPI.						
Export from NATCHEZ, &c. :—						
Coastwise, (Remainder included in New Orls.)						
ALABAMA.						
Export from MOBILE—						
To foreign ports,.....	216,239	323,077	320,701	445,725		
Coastwise,	103,837					
Burnt and lost,	1,170					
Stock in Mobile, 1st October, 1841,.....	1,831					
Deduct—		2,376			93,552	136,257
Stock in Mobile, 1st October, 1840,.....	1,737					
Received from Florida,.....	486					
do. do. Texas,.....	153					
FLORIDA.						
Export—To foreign ports,.....	32,297	93,852			93,552	136,257
Coastwise,.....	59,555					
Burnt and lost,.....	1,400					
Stock on hand, 1st October, 1841,.....	600					
Deduct—Stock on hand, 1st October, 1840,.....		300				
GEORGIA.						
Export from SAVANNAH—						
To foreign ports—Uplands,.....	80,496					
Sea Islands,.....	5,100					
Coastwise—Uplands,	56,412					
Sea Islands,.....	867					
	142,875					

GROWTH, EXPORT, CONSUMPTION, ETC., OF COTTON, FOR 1841.—Continued.

Business of the Commercial Year of 1841.	Bales.	Bales.	TOTAL.	
			1841.	1840.
From DARIEN—				
Bro't forward,	142,875			
To New York,.....	5,630			
Burnt,.....	600			
Stock in Savannah, 1st October, 1841,.....	1,456			
do. Augusta and Hambro', 1st Oct., 1841,	4,127			
		154,688		
Deduct—				
Stock in Savannah and Augusta, 1st Oct., 1840,.....		5,741		
			148,947	292,693
SOUTH CAROLINA.				
Export from CHARLESTON—				
To foreign ports—Uplands,.....	149,272			
Sea Islands,.....	12,991			
Coastwise—Uplands,.....	62,989			
Sea Islands,.....	970			
	226,222			
From GEORGETOWN—				
To New York,.....	12,043			
Burnt and lost,.....	750			
Stock in Charleston, 1st October, 1841,.....	3,708			
Deduct—		242,723		
Stock in Charleston, 1st October, 1840,.....	4,153			
Received from Savannah,.....	9,562			
do. do. Florida and Key West,.....	1,608			
		15,323		
			227,400	313,194
NORTH CAROLINA.				
Export—All coastwise,.....	7,765			
Stock on hand, 1st October, 1841,.....	300			
		8,065		
Deduct—Stock on hand, 1st October, 1840,.....		200		
			7,865	9,394
VIRGINIA.				
Export—To foreign ports,.....	4,732			
Coastwise,.....	4,500			
Manufactured,.....	15,000			
Stock on hand, 1st October, 1841,.....	420			
		24,652		
Deduct—Stock on hand, 1st October, 1840,.....	900			
Received from southern ports,.....	2,952			
		3,852		
			20,800	23,650
Receiv'd at Philadelphia and Baltimore, overl'nd,.....			1,000	3,250
TOTAL CROP OF THE UNITED STATES,.....			1,634,945	2,177,835

Total crop of 1840,.....bales 2,177,835
Total crop of 1841, as above,..... 1,634,945

Decrease, in 1841,..... 542,890

GROWTH OF COTTON IN THE UNITED STATES, IN EACH YEAR FROM 1824 TO 1841.

Crop of 1824-5	b.560,000	Crop of 1830-1	b.1,038,848	Crop of 1836-7	b.1,422,930
" 1825-6	710,000	" 1831-2	987,477	" 1837-8	1,801,497
" 1826-7	937,000	" 1832-3	1,070,438	" 1838-9	1,360,532
" 1827-8	712,000	" 1833-4	1,205,394	" 1839-40	2,177,835
" 1828-9	857,744	" 1834-5	1,254,328	" 1840-1	1,634,945
" 1829-30	976,845	" 1835-6	1,360,725		

EXPORT TO FOREIGN PORTS, FROM 1ST OCTOBER, 1840, TO 30TH SEPTEMBER, 1841.

EXPORTED FROM	To Great Britain.	To France.	To N. of Europe.	Oth. For. Ports.	TOTAL.
New Orleans,.....	427,472	182,310	10,091	36,943	656,816
Mississippi, (Natchez)*.....					
Alabama,.....	149,854	57,204	4,357	4,824	216,239
Florida,.....	20,113	11,319	740	95	32,297
Georgia, (Savannah and Darien,)....	82,842	2,283		471	85,596
South Carolina,.....	101,564	35,886	22,305	2,520	162,275
North Carolina,.....					
Virginia,	2,800	1,724	150	58	4,732
Baltimore,.....	177		40		217
Philadelphia,	1,556	11	138	229	1,934
New York,.....	71,696	57,847	16,315	3,711	149,569
Boston,	668	162	2,143	629	3,602
* Included in exports from New Orleans.					
TOTAL,.....	858,742	348,776	56,279	49,480	1,313,277

	To Gt. Britain.	To France.	To N. of Europe.	Oth. For. Ports.	Total.
Export in 1840,.....	1,246,791.....	447,465.....	103,232.....	78,515.....	1,876,003
Export in 1841,.....	858,742.....	348,776.....	56,279.....	49,480.....	1,313,277
Decrease in 1841,...	388,049	98,689	46,953	29,035	562,726

CONSUMPTION.

Total crop of the United States for 1841, as before stated,.....1,634,945 bales.

Add—Stocks on hand at the commencement of the year,

(1st Oct. 1840.)—In the southern ports,.....40,942

do. In the northern ports,.....17,500

58,442

Makes a supply of.....1,693,387

Deduct therefrom—The export to foreign ports,.....1,313,277

Less Texas and other foreign,.....5,900

1,307,377

Stocks on hand at the close of the year,

(1st Oct. 1841.)—In the southern ports,.....44,018

do. In the northern ports,.....38,050

82,068

Burnt and lost at New Orleans,.....2,000

" " Mobile,.....1,170

" " Apalachicola,.....1,400

" " Savannah,.....600

" " Charleston,.....750

" " New York,.....734

6,654

1,396,099

Quantity consumed by and in the hands of manufacturers, 1840-41,.....bales 297,288

do. do. do. 1839-40,.....295,193

do. do. do. 1838-39,.....276,018

do. do. do. 1837-38,.....246,063

do. do. do. 1836-37,.....222,540

do. do. do. 1835-36,.....236,733

do. do. do. 1834-35,.....216,888

do. do. do. 1833-34,.....196,413

do. do. do. 1832-33,.....194,412

do. do. do. 1831-32,.....173,800

do. do. do. 1830-31,.....182,142

do. do. do. 1829-30,.....126,512

do. do. do. 1828-29,.....118,853

do. do. do. 1827-28,.....120,593

do. do. do. 1826-27,.....103,483

It will be seen that we have deducted from the New Orleans statement, the quantity received at that port from Texas—Texas being a foreign country.

Our estimate of the quantity taken for consumption, does not include any cotton manufactured in the states south and west of Virginia, nor any in that state, except in the vicinity of Petersburg and Richmond.

Of the *new* crop, now gathering, about 32,000 bales were received previous to the 1st December, 1841; of which 28,175 were received at New Orleans.

It is our intention hereafter to make up our statement of the crop to the 1st September, in conformity with the plan adopted in the southern ports.—*Shipping & Com. List.*

TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1789 TO 1815.

We published in this magazine, for December, 1841, a comparative view of the registered, enrolled, and licensed tonnage of the United States, from 1815 to 1840 inclusive, from the annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury. The following table, compiled with care from the American state papers, exhibits a comparative view of the tonnage of the United States, from 1789 to 1815, which, in connection with the table above referred to, furnishes a complete view of American tonnage from 1789 to 1840. We purpose in future numbers of the Merchants' Magazine to exhibit in the mercantile tables the statistics of the United States, as connected with its commerce and navigation, so that the volumes of this work will embrace a mass of American commercial statistics, for easy and ready reference, to be found in no other single work.

Years.	TONS AND 95THS.			Years.	TONS AND 95THS.		
	Registered.	Enrolled.	Total.		Registered.	Enrolled.	Total.
1789	123,893 00	68,607 00	201,562 00	1803	597,157 05	268,676 12	949,147 44
1790	346,254 00	103,775 00	478,562 00	1804	672,530 18	286,840 01	1,042,403 96
1791	363,110 00	106,494 00	502,146 00	1805	749,341 22	301,366 38	1,140,368 93
1792	411,438 00	120,957 00	564,437 00	1806	808,284 68	309,977 05	1,208,735 50
1793	367,734 23	114,853 10	491,780 50	1807	848,306 85	318,189 93	1,268,548 42
1794	438,862 71	167,227 42	628,816 99	1808	769,053 54	387,684 43	1,242,595 12
1795	529,470 63	164,795 91	747,963 92	1809	910,059 23	371,500 56	1,350,281 26
1796	546,733 25	195,423 64	831,900 86	1810	984,269 05	371,114 12	1,424,683 27
1797	597,777 43	214,077 05	876,912 80	1811	768,852 21	386,258 70	1,232,542 39
1798	603,376 37	227,343 79	898,328 26	1812	760,624 40	443,180 75	1,269,997 36
1799	669,197 19	220,904 46	946,408 45	1813	674,853 44	433,404 87	1,166,628 56
1800	669,921 35	245,299 04	972,492 04	1814	674,632 63	425,713 59	1,159,208 89
1801	718,549 60	246,255 34	1,033,218 90	1815	854,294 74	435,066 87	1,368,127 78
1802	560,380 63	260,543 16	892,101 43				

ARRIVALS AT AND CLEARANCES FROM THE PORT OF BOSTON, 1841.

MONTHS.	ARRIVALS.						CLEARANCES.					
	<i>Ships</i>	<i>Brks.</i>	<i>Brgs</i>	<i>Schrs</i>	<i>Sl'ps.</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Ships</i>	<i>Brks.</i>	<i>Brgs</i>	<i>Schrs</i>	<i>Sl'ps.</i>	<i>Total</i>
January,	25	27	68	122	8	250	27	30	59	78	3	197
February,	15	10	39	137	2	203	23	20	49	79	2	173
March,	47	24	96	203	16	386	28	23	80	141	11	283
April,	21	27	84	356	14	502	33	23	78	199	8	341
May,	16	25	113	420	21	595	18	25	93	315	15	466
June,	21	21	138	529	21	730	17	23	106	296	11	453
July,	29	24	144	553	24	774	29	24	121	316	9	499
August,	28	24	112	433	16	613	15	15	99	278	17	424
September,	31	30	151	467	21	700	21	25	94	279	16	435
October,	23	31	93	465	16	628	41	31	97	297	19	485
November,	14	21	93	432	11	571	39	35	92	201	9	376
December,	19	19	96	224	7	365	16	30	80	144	8	278
TOTAL,	289	283	1227	4341	177	6317	307	304	1048	2623	128	4410
Coastwise,	115	133	643	3506	177	4574	203	180	546	1784	128	2841
Foreign,	174	150	584	835	000	1743	104	124	502	839	000	1569

Of the foreign arrivals, 1 ship, 10 barks, 73 brigs, and 587 schooners were British; 1 bark and 4 brigs, Sicilian; 1 brig, Spanish; 1 bark, 2 brigs and 1 schooner, Hamburgese; 1 schooner, Prussian; 4 barks and 6 brigs, Swedish; 1 brig and 1 schooner, Danish; 1 brig, Russian; 1 brig, Dutch, (galliot;) in all, 696 foreign vessels.

Of the foreign clearances, 1 ship, 8 barks, 78 brigs, and 585 schooners were British; 1 bark and 4 brigs, Sicilian; 1 brig, Spanish; 1 bark, 2 brigs and 1 schooner, Hamburgese; 1 schooner, Prussian; 4 barks and 6 brigs, Swedish; 1 brig and 1 schooner, Danish; 1 brig, Russian; 1 brig, Dutch, (galliot;) in all, 697 foreign vessels. There appears to be about 1700 more coastwise clearances than arrivals, which is caused by many vessels sailing under a coasting license, and never clear at the customhouse at all.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF BOSTON.

BOSTON IMPORTS IN 1841.

Statement of the quantity of Coal, Cotton, Flour, Grain, Hides, Molasses, Tea, and Wine imported into Boston, in 1841.

COAL.			From—	FLOUR.	Barrels.
From—	Tons.	Bushels.			
Philadelphia,.....	92,838	New York,.....		289,114
Kingston,.....	5,283	Albany,.....		76,691
Rondout,.....	10,360	Kingston,.....		34
Other places,.....	1,942	Baltimore,.....		62,740
Richmond,.....		124,041	New Orleans,.....		62,834
			Fredericksburg,.....		31,900
Total,.....	110,432	124,041	Richmond,.....		17,031
In 1840.....	73,847	92,370	Georgetown,.....		18,016
1839.....	90,485	144,475	Alexandria,.....		12,962
1838.....	71,364	107,625	Petersburg,.....		5,002
1837.....	80,557	109,275	Norfolk,.....		676
			Philadelphia,.....		42,893
			Ports in Delaware,.....		1,027
			New Jersey,.....		100
			Connecticut,.....		458
			Massachusetts,.....		2,070
			New Hampshire,.....		70
			Maine,.....		619
				Total barrels,.....	574,233
				In 1840,.....	550,359
				1839,.....	451,667
				1838,.....	379,704
				1837,.....	423,246

GRAIN.

The quantity of grain imported, during 1841, was—

	Corn.	Oats.	Rye.
From New Orleans,.....bushels	36,733	280
Charleston,.....	3,000
North Carolina,.....	71,594
Fredericksburg,.....	162,691
Norfolk,.....	160,870	2,420
Rappahannock,.....	50,685
Other ports in Virginia,.....	83,114	1,590
Baltimore,.....	537,956	9,791	700
Delaware,.....	111,956	34,360
Philadelphia,.....	559,511	98,069	2,916
New Jersey,.....	50,645	29,058
New York,.....	194,404	88,140	28,232
Albany,.....	12,792	5,091	1,000
Other ports in New York,.....	7,000	6,700	1,000
Ports in Connecticut,.....	500	2,000
Rhode Island,.....	500

COMPARATIVE ANNUAL PRODUCTIONS OF NEW YORK AND MASSACHUSETTS.

	New York.	Massachusetts.
Flour,.....barrels	3,000,000	20,000
Swine,.....number	9,916,953	90,335
Sheep,....."	5,381,225	343,390
Wheat,.....bushels	11,853,507	101,178
Oats,....."	20,728,739	1,226,300
Indian Corn,....."	11,055,145	1,775,073
Rye,....."	2,984,913	453,705
Neat Cattle,.....number	2,202,438	278,737
Wool,.....pounds	14,073,124	1,000,000
Manufactures of Leather,...value	\$1,200,000	\$14,994,095
" Cotton,...."	3,561,437	17,409,001
" Wool,....."	3,419,224	10,399,807
Fisheries,....."	1,200,000	7,592,392

New York contains an area of 45,658 square miles, with a population of 2,428,921 souls; and Massachusetts an area of 7,800 miles, and a population of 737,699 souls.

CONSUMPTION OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

The following is an approximate estimate of the annual amount of sales of articles of country produce in the city of New York, for the consumption of the inhabitants:—

Fresh Beef,.....	\$1,470,000	Butter, Cheese, and Lard,.....	\$1,500,000
" Veal,.....	365,000	Flour, Meal, and oth. B'dstuffs,	3,000,000
" Mutton and Lamb,.....	335,000	Hay and Oats,.....	750,000
" Pork,.....	600,000	Fuel, (wood and coal) exclu- }	2,500,000
" Poultry, Game, Eggs, &c.	1,100,000	sive of steam fuel,.....	
Salted Beef, Pork, and Hams,	1,200,000	Articles not enumerated,.....	580,000
Vegetables and Fruit,.....	1,200,000		
Milk,.....	1,000,000		
		TOTAL,.....	\$15,600,000

The above is not intended to include building materials.

NAVIGATION OF NEW YORK.

The annexed statement of arrivals at the port of New York from foreign countries, in the year 1841, and of the total number of arrivals and passengers, for the last seven years, was prepared by Mr. Thorn, of the revenue department, and may be relied upon for its accuracy. Compared with the commerce of 1840, there is an increase of 91 American vessels, 27 British, 15 Swedish, 4 Dutch, 3 Danish, &c. Of French vessels there are eight less than in 1840:—

American ships, 452	Swedish...schrs., 1— 49	Norweg'n brigs, 3— 7
" barks, 132	Sicilian....ships, 1	Colomb'n brigs, 7
" brigs, 631	" barks, 1	" schrs., 2— 9
" schrs., 348—1563	" brigs, 7	Neapoli'n barks, 1
British.....ships, 16	" schrs., 1— 10	" brigs, 2— 3
" steamships, 7	Dutch.....barks, 2	Portug'se...schrs., 2— 2
" barks, 39	" brigs, 3	Prussian...ships, 1
" brigs, 181	" galliots, 7	" barks, 1
" schrs., 91— 334	" schrs., 3— 15	" brigs, 5— 7
French....ships, 3	Hamburg...ships, 5	Genoese...brigs, 1— 1
" barks, 7	" barks, 7	Brazilian...brigs, 1— 1
" brigs, 19— 29	" brigs, 3— 15	Venezuel. brigs, 3
Bremen....ships, 10	Danish....ships, 2	" schrs., 2— 5
" barks, 22	" barks, 1	Haytian...brigs, 2— 2
" brigs, 11	" brigs, 8	Sardinian barks, 1
" schrs., 1— 44	" schrs., 1— 12	" brigs, 2— 3
Spanish...schrs., 2— 2	Austrian...ships, 1	Greek.....brigs, 1— 1
Swedish...ships, 5	" barks, 1	Italian....brigs, 1— 1
" barks, 20	" brigs, 1— 3	
" brigs, 23	Norweg'n barks, 4	
		TOTAL,.....2118

Whole number of passengers from foreign ports, in 1841, 57,377; of whom 4041 were

cabin passengers. The following statement shows the number of arrivals and passengers in different years:—

Year.	Arrivals.	Passengers.	Year.	Arrivals.	Passengers.
In 1835,.....	2,094.....	35,303	In 1839,.....	2,159.....	48,152
1836,.....	2,293.....	60,541	1840,.....	1,953.....	62,797
1837,.....	2,071.....	57,975	1841,.....	2,118.....	57,337
1838,.....	1,790.....	25,581			

TRADE OF FRANCE WITH THE LEVANT.

One of the French Carlist papers, in the course of some speculations on the "monopoly" contemplated by England of the route by the isthmus of Suez, and of the shores of the Red Sea, and of the loss of French influence in the East, gives the following particulars of the past and present state of the commercial relations of France in the Levant. Marseilles, it is observed, had formerly the monopoly of the trade of the east. From 1765 to 1792, the average exports of Marseilles amounted to 60,000,000 livres—that of imports to 78,180,000. The Levant trade figured in these two sums for 21,500,000 in imports, and 37,680,000 in exports; that is, for more than five twelfths of imports, and for more than six twelfths of exports. These values have never been obtained since the last-named year, when the great revolution was in full progress. But of late, and since the peace, down to last year, the trade had resumed an ascending movement. In 1832, the value of the exports was 16,758,635*f.*, and of the imports 23,874,830*f.* In 1839, the exports for Turkey were 43,453,976*f.*, and the imports 15,554,392*f.*, according to the official returns. Upon the total of the last sums indicated Egypt enters for—exports, 2,991,339*f.*; imports, 3,516,853*f.* In the years preceding, it is stated, when Mehemet Ali was unmolested by the allied powers, the commerce of France with Egypt had reached the amounts 5,018,478*f.* of imports, and 3,393,615*f.* of exports. In the general statement Syria appears for—exports about 4,000,000*f.*, imports 6,000,000*f.* So that Egypt and Syria furnished about one seventh of the commodities imported from Turkey, and absorbed about one half those exported into the Levant. The port of Marseilles employed in the trade with Syria from 16 to 20 vessels, of 120 to 220 tons each, which were freighted in the following proportions:—two thirds for Beyrout, half for Aleppo, and one quarter for Tripoli. These vessels exported cochineal, bales of cloth, mercery, colonial produce, spices, silks and drugs. The returns were composed of wax, gall nuts, cotton, saffron, Indian goods, gold and silver stuffs, and fine pearls. "It is to be remarked," observes the writer, "that the cloths of all kinds, which are the product of certain manufactories in the south which work exclusively for the Levant, constitute at least eleven twelfths of our exports from Syria; these manufactories now find themselves in competition with English manufacturers, who, as is well known, have the *laudable* habit of inundating with their merchandise every country which their shipping visits." The trade of Egypt with Marseilles, which at certain epochs gave employment to as many as 90 vessels, is at present carried on by a number fluctuating between 50 and 20, according to the quantity of the cotton crop, which forms the chief portion of the import.

BRITISH HOME CONSUMPTION OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL WHEAT.

An account has lately been published by order of the British house of commons, showing the quantities of foreign and British colonial wheat entered for home consumption from the passing of the act 9, Geo. IV., cap. 60, on the 15th of July, 1828, to the 5th of Jan., 1841. The total quantity of foreign wheat during this whole period was 11,322,085 qrs., and the quantity of wheaten flour 3,768,335 cwt. The quantity entered at 1*s.* duty is 3,907,981 quarters of wheat, and 1,276,731 cwt. of flour, while 2*s.* 8*d.* makes a decline to 2,788,277 qrs. of wheat, and 835,406 cwt. of flour. The total amount of colonial wheat during the entire period was 523,265 qrs. wheat, and 1,023,805 cwt. flour.

STATISTICAL VIEW OF THE WHALE FISHERY OF THE U. S. IN 1841.

A Table, showing the Arrivals of Shipping engaged in the Whale Fishery at the different Ports, and the number of Barrels of Sperm and Whale Oil imported into the United States, in 1841.

PORTS OF ARRIVAL.	<i>Ships and Barks.</i>	<i>Brigs.</i>	<i>Schooners.</i>	<i>Barrels. Sperm.</i>	<i>Barrels. Whale.</i>
New Bedford,.....	48	7	2	54,860	49,550
Nantucket,.....	21	2	1.....	39,891	3,405
Fairhaven,.....	13	0	0.....	8,280	18,450
Dartmouth,.....	1	0	0.....	2,200
Westport,.....	3	3	0 ..	3,180
Mattapoisset and Sippican,...	2	6	0 ..	2,280	79
Wareham,.....	0	3	0.....	1,430	220
Edgartown,.....	2	1	0.....	3,169	50
Holmes' Hole,.....	1	0	0.....	500	1,200
Fall River,.....	2	0	0.....	950	900
Newburyport,.....	1	0	0.....	400	400
Plymouth,.....	0	1	3.....	500	13
Salem,.....	1	0	0.....	275	1,300
Boston,.....	2	5	0 ..	6,216	1,000
Falmouth,.....	1	0	0 ..	1,300	379
Provincetown,.....	0	5	1.....	1,025	40
Newport,.....	1	2	0.....	2,297	25
Bristol,.....	3	3	0.....	2,930	175
Warren,.....	5	1	0	3,115	5,300
Providence,.....	3	0	0.....	1,670	7,350
New London,.....	15	1	2.....	4,115	27,890
Stonington,.....	3	0	0.....	1,500	5,660
Mystic,.....	1	1	0.....	600	1,600
Sagharbor,.....	22	1	0.....	5,310	48,620
Greenport,.....	4	0	0 ..	1,000	6,602
New Suffolk,.....	1	0	0 ..	260	1,200
Bridgeport,.....	2	0	0.....	400	3,700
Hudson,.....	1	0	0.....	300	2,300
Poughkeepsie,.....	1	0	0.....	500	2,000
Wilmington,.....	4	0	0.....	5,600	2,400
Newark,.....	1	0	0 ..	40	2,460
Coldspring,.....	2	0	0	4,250
Jamesport,.....	1	0	0.....	150	1,550
Wiscasset,.....	1	0	0.....	900	1,200
Portland,.....	1	0	0.....	300	2,800
New York,.....	1	0	0	1,000
TOTAL, in 1841,.....	171	42	9	157,643	205,164
Arrived in 1840,.....	175	42	6	156,455	203,441

The following table exhibits the progress of the whale fishery from 1815 to 1841, inclusive; showing the number of barrels of oil imported into the United States, in each year:—

<i>Yrs.</i>	<i>Barrels. Sperm.</i>	<i>Barrels. Whale.</i>	<i>Yrs.</i>	<i>Barrels. Sperm.</i>	<i>Barrels. Whale.</i>	<i>Yrs.</i>	<i>Barrels. Sperm.</i>
1841,...	157,343	205,064	1832,...	79,067	179,241	1823,.....	87,230
1840,...	156,445	203,441	1831,...	110,532	113,948	1822,.....	42,900
1839,...	141,664	223,523	1830,...	106,829	86,274	1821,.....	48,000
1838,...	129,400	228,710	1829,...	79,840	...	1820,.....	34,708
1837,...	182,569	215,110	1828,...	73,077	...	1819,.....	21,323
1836,...	133,321	133,050	1827,...	93,180	...	1818,.....	18,625
1835,...	175,130	125,100	1826,...	32,840	...	1817,.....	32,650
1834,...	129,824	122,292	1825,...	62,240	...	1816,.....	7,539
1833,...	113,171	159,166	1824,...	92,380	...	1815,.....	3,944

OUTFIT OF WHALE SHIPS.

The annexed enumeration of the quantities of many articles of foreign and domestic produce required in the outfit of whale ships, which sailed during 1841, is derived from the Nantucket Enquirer,—good authority on all matters pertaining to this branch of commerce. It affords convincing evidence to the farmer, manufacturer and importer, that they, as well as those most directly concerned in the whale fishery, have an interest in this important and increasing branch of industry. Asking and receiving from government nothing but protection against a ruinous competition with foreign oils, and such a sprinkling of the stars and stripes among our ocean fishers as will entitle them to respect in peace and guaranty their protection in war, the American whalers have increased from a few frail boats, hardly venturing from the shore, to a fleet of 650 sail of 190,000 tons burden, a monument reared upon the broad ocean, where the world may sail and read the chivalrous and enriching results of New England perseverance, energy, and industry. Other nations have not been negligent in encouraging this fishery; but in all cases with but little good effect. Notwithstanding bounties, loans, royal grants, and monopolies have been showered upon the adventurous whalers of other nations, the fishery has died under these lavishments until America and New South Wales only, import enough for their own consumption:—

Flour,.....	45,240 barrels.	White Lead,.....	174,600 pounds.
Pork and Beef,.....	46,050 "	Paint Oil,.....	11,980 gallons.
Molasses,.....	204,500 gallons.	Cotton and Calicoes,.....	673,000 yards.
Coffee,.....	226,480 pounds.	Butter,.....	226,453 pounds.
Sugar,.....	203,700 "	Vinegar,.....	2,113 barrels.
Tea,.....	90,560 "	Beans, Peas, and Corn,...	26,542 bushels.
Rice,.....	204,500 "	Cheese,.....	45,240 pounds.
Duck,.....	22,660 pieces.	Hams,.....	44,950 "
Cordage,.....	2,530 tons.	Dried Apples,.....	226,480 "
Iron Hoops,.....	2,716 "	Dried Fish,.....	281,140 "
Staves,.....	550,000 barrels.	Tobacco,.....	452,000 "
Copper,.....	226,170 sheets.	Soap,.....	4,520 boxes.
Tar,.....	4,520 barrels.		

We add the following interesting account of the equipment and expense of fitting 180 Dutch whale ships for the Greenland fishery, in the eighteenth century:—

36,000 new casks,.....	florins	108,000
2,700,000 hoops, for repairing old casks, &c.....		43,000
Coopers' wages,.....		21,600
172,000 pounds of cordage,.....		35,000
Making and repairing boats, with their stores, &c.....		15,000
Iron work, nails, smiths' wages, &c.....		5,000
400,000 pounds of beef, &c.....		40,000
2,800 firkins of butter, of 80 or 90 Amsterdam pounds each,.....		57,000
150,000 pounds of stock fish,.....		12,000
550,000 pounds biscuit,.....		40,000
72,000 pounds of soft bread,.....		18,000
550 ankers of Geneva,.....		5,500
Sugar, spices, &c.....		3,000
60,000 pounds of Friesland pork,.....		8,000
144,000 pounds of cheese,.....		18,000
20,000 pounds of Texel and Leyden cheese,.....		1,500
10,800 barrels of beer,.....		27,000
9,000 sacks of peas, barley, &c.....		40,500
Herring and salt fish,.....		3,000
Various cooks' and cabin furniture, expenses of transporting stores on board, &c.		38,000
Hard money to seamen,.....		180,000
Wages of the seamen, payable on the return of the ships, and other incidental expenses during the voyage,.....		540,000
For the freight or hire of ships, at the rate of 3000 florins for each ship,.....		540,000
Total of advances for 180 whale fishing ships,.....		1,800,000

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE U. S., FROM 1831 TO 1840.

COMMERCE OF THE LAKES.

It is stated in the *Detroit Advertiser* that in 1819, there was but one steamboat on the lakes.

In 1827, the waters of Lake Michigan were first ploughed by steam—a boat having made an excursion to Green Bay.

In 1832, a boat reached Chicago with troops.

In 1833, there were 11 boats on the lakes, which cost \$360,000, and carried, that year, 61,480 passengers; and with the freight the receipts were \$229,212 69. This season, three trips were made to Chicago, and one to Green Bay; the amount of receipts was \$4,335 39. The time of running from Buffalo and returning averaged 22 days.

In 1834, 7 new boats came out, which made 18 in service for the year. Total cost, \$500,000. The amount of the earnings of the boats this year was \$238,565 95. Two trips were made to Green Bay, and three to Chicago; and the amount received for them was \$6,273 65.

In 1839, the increase of business to Chicago, and ports west of Detroit, was so great that a regular line of 8 boats ran from Buffalo to Chicago, making a trip in 16 days.

In 1840, the number of boats on the lakes increased to 48, and the cost of them was \$2,200,000. The earnings of the boats was \$725,523 44. Rising of \$300,000 of this amount was earnings west of Detroit.

In 1841, 525 trips were made from Buffalo to Detroit—81 to the upper lakes, of which 70 were to Chicago, and 10 to Green Bay. Earnings of all the boats 767,123 27. The upper lake boats contributed \$301,803 39 to this amount. In 1841, the number of sail vessels was estimated at 550, varying in size from 30 to 350 tons, and the cost of them \$1,250,000, and their earnings at \$750,000. The earnings of British vessels on the lakes is estimated at \$150,000. The earnings of the steamboats and sailing vessels on the lakes in 1841, from the best data that we can get at, is—

American steamboats,.....	\$767,132 27
“ sailing vessels,.....	750,000 00
British vessels, generally,.....	150,000 00
	<hr/>
	\$1,667,132 27

Lake Tonnage.—According to the Secretary of the Treasury's Report, the enrolled and licensed tonnage in 1841, at the various districts on the lakes, is at

	Tons.		Tons.
Sackett's Harbor,.....	3,623	Sandusky,.....	2,642
Oswego,.....	8,346	Detroit,.....	11,433
Niagara,.....	230	Mackinaw,.....	470
Buffalo,.....	4,196		
Cleveland,.....	9,514	TOTAL,.....	41,184

The district of Detroit excels any other—Cleveland next.

LAKE COMMERCE OF CLEVELAND, OHIO.

Statement of the number of arrivals and departures (steam vessels not included) at the port of Cleveland, from 23d March, 1841, when the harbor was clear of ice, to the close of navigation; principal articles of cargo; number of vessels and steamboats belonging to the port of Cleveland, and their aggregate amount of tonnage; prepared by GEO. B. MERWIN, collector of customs at Cleveland, Ohio, Jan. 1, 1842.

Whole number of arrivals, 1364; of which 437 were from Canadian ports on Lake Erie, and American and Canadian ports *via* Welland Canal. Principal articles of cargo:

Merchandise,.....	35,485 pack'gs.	Corn,.....	11,165 bushels.
do.	489 tons.	Wheat,.....	1,720 "
Salt,.....	90,160 pounds.	Lumber,*	2,058,000 feet.
Fish,.....	5,911 "	Shingles,.....	1,802 thousa'd.
Flour,.....	1,121 "	Staves,.....	69 "
Plaster,.....	1,101 "	Shingle Bolts,.....	333 cords.
do.	423 tons.	Burr Blocks,.....	1,500

Cargo by steamboats, no account.

* 1,108,000 feet from Canada.

Whole number of departures, 1366; of which 422 were to Canadian ports on Lake Erie, and American and Canadian ports *via* Welland Canal. Principal articles of cargo:

Wheat,.....	1,593,000 bushels.	Potash,.....	1,006 barrels.
Corn,.....	203,900 "	Beef,.....	868 "
Oats,.....	17,229 "	Beans,.....	647 casks.
Flour,*	460,810 barrels.	Cheese,.....	1,295 "
Pork,.....	33,733 "	do.	32 tons.
Whiskey,.....	12,348 "	Tobacco,.....	900 hogsh'ds.
Lard,.....	1,593 "	Hams,.....	2,082 casks.
do.	3,791 kegs.	Coal,.....	4,329 tons.
do.	60 tons.	Grindstones,.....	266 "
Salt,.....	17,030 barrels.	Staves,.....	2,954 thousa'd.
Flax and Grass Seed,...	2,051 "	Black Walnut Lumber,	144 "
Butter,.....	541 "	Feathers,.....	962 sacks.
do.	15,542 kegs.	Wool,.....	661 bales.
do.	28 tons.	Cotton,.....	174 "
* 12,383 barrels shipped by steamboats.		Hides,.....	1,031

Of the above were shipped to the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada :—

Wheat,.....	271,913 bushels.	Beef,.....	760 barrels.
Corn,.....	47,393 "	Coal,.....	1,553 tons.
Oats,.....	969 "	Grindstones,.....	157 "
Flour,.....	62,605 barrels.	Staves,.....	34 thousa'd.
Pork,.....	13,469 "		

Vessels belonging to Cleveland.—Schooners, 66; steamboats, 7; brigs, 4; sloops, 2. Aggregate amount of tonnage, 9,504 tons.

CANAL COMMERCE OF CLEVELAND.

The following particulars of merchandise, on which toll is charged by weight, is from the official report of D. H. Beardsley, Esq., the collector at Cleveland. There arrived at Cleveland, by way of the canal, during the year 1841, 275,556,683 pounds. The following constitute the chief articles that arrived :—

Wheat,.....	1,569,976 bushels.	Lard,.....	961,421 pounds.
Corn,.....	244,749 "	Bacon,.....	1,878,530 "
Oats,.....	32,851 "	Pig Iron,.....	988,160 "
Mineral Coal,.....	479,441 "	Merchandise,.....	677,245 "
Flour,.....	441,848 barrels.	Iron and Nails,.....	3,842,420 "
Pork,.....	29,886 "	Tobacco,.....	912 hogsh'ds.
Whiskey,.....	12,245 "	Staves and Heading,...	968,304 pieces.
Butter,.....	1,464,935 pounds.	Wood,.....	1,879½ cords.
Cheese,.....	58,148 "		

Of property on which toll is charged by weight, there were cleared from Cleveland, by way of the canal, during 1841, 44,017,480 pounds.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

SOUTHERN CURRENCY.

Of the many embarrassments and difficulties that arise from a fluctuating currency, none so seriously affect the interests of our merchants as the losses to which they are subjected in the transmission of funds from one point to another; and these losses, for a long time past, have been of the most important character. Nor are they by any means confined to the place from whence funds are to be transmitted, as merchants, particularly in the city of New York, are well aware. Southern and western traders—and it is at the south and west where this difficulty is most seriously felt—to obtain funds available in that city, must pay an enormous premium; and it is not unfrequently the case, that the very extravagance of this premium furnishes the excuse for not meeting their liabilities at maturity. The wholesale dealer who relied upon the prompt payment of the notes he had taken for his merchandise, is often ruined in this manner, and is really more injured by the high rate of exchange than the debtor himself. How the currency can be equalized so as to remedy this immense evil, is a question of no little importance. The wisdom of congress may devise some measure by which this can be accomplished, but so many opinions exist upon this subject, that any great scheme of finance would surely meet with objections from some quarter. Local institutions are not generally powerful enough to effect the desired object, though there is no doubt but if their energies were effectively directed, the difficulties existing in the financial world would be in part at least removed. One of our city banks is, we believe, about to attempt this upon a scale which we trust will prove successful. For a long time past, as is well known, the currency of our sister republic of Texas has been in a worse condition than it has been in any part of the United States. Composed, as its entire paper circulation is, of treasury notes, which in that country do not pass for more than from 15 to 20 cents upon the dollar, and which we believe are selling in the city of New York for less than half that amount, the inhabitants are subjected to the most destructive embarrassments; while the merchants of that republic cannot obtain funds upon New York, nor upon any of the cities along our seaboard, without suffering the most ruinous losses. The object of this bank is to relieve them of all these difficulties by furnishing the government of Texas with its own notes, to be used as the circulating medium of that country in the place of its treasury paper; and these notes, which would always be at or above par in every part of the United States, would be worth much more to the merchants there, for transmission to New York or elsewhere, than silver or gold, while to circulate among the inhabitants they would be worth a premium. Some of the gentlemen connected with this institution are already on their way, or are about to depart for that republic; and one of these, we learn, is connected by relationship with some of its most influential statesmen. With the particular proposition they are authorized to make on behalf of the bank we are not acquainted, though we presume the government of Texas will embrace the opportunity of amending the condition of its currency, if it can be done on reasonable terms. That a solvent, well-conducted institution, with its principal issues directed to this object, can do much towards relieving that country of its monetary embarrassments, there can be no doubt; and should this arrangement be effected, not Texas only will be benefited, but the whole south; for, let the circulation of a New York bank be widely diffused in this young republic, and it would naturally, to some extent at least, spread throughout the southern states, thus furnishing a convenient and available fund for transmission to that city. This, however, would bestow upon the south but a small proportion of the relief of which it now stands so much in need, and

we trust that the time is not far distant when all political parties will unite in the creation of a financial system that shall operate equally beneficially throughout our whole country, and which shall be free of all constitutional objections, and at the same time be in accordance with the lessons of history and experience. When this will be accomplished we cannot pretend to predict; but so far as the influence of this magazine can assist in promoting an end so desirable, its aid shall not be wanting. A sound currency in a mercantile community is of all else the most necessary and important; and we know of no work which is more appropriately its advocate, than one which, like this, is exclusively devoted to the discussion of commercial interests. In succeeding numbers, therefore, we shall occasionally at least, devote a few of our pages to this subject, and while our readers may rely with confidence upon the authenticity of such facts as we shall place before them, we do not ask them to subscribe to any opinions we may offer, unless, upon mature consideration, they shall believe them to be founded upon reason and experience.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.

The board of directors take pleasure in acknowledging the receipt of the following donations:—

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By order,

CLINTON HALL, January 15, 1842.

R. E. LOCKWOOD, *Cor. Secretary.*

VALUE OF CALIFORNIA WHEAT.

It is stated in the *Augusta Constitutionalist*, of August 26th, 1841, that the grain of this article was brought by a trader from Middle California, 34 or 35 degrees north latitude, where it grows luxuriantly, and yields abundantly a superior article of flour. It was obtained and introduced by Major Thomas P. Spierin, who was in the northwest, in the employ of the United States, as Indian Agent. This wheat has been sown in Abbeville District, South Carolina, latitude 34 deg. 10 min. N. The crop of this year, 1841, is superior to that of 1840, in the size of the heads, superior product, and fullness of the grain. Experienced farmers, who have seen the wheat grow, assert that on proper wheat land, well prepared, eighty bushels can be raised on an acre. Its yield is astonishing, from the fact of one grain producing thirty to forty stalks, each having a full head, which contains from one hundred to two hundred grains. The best head of our common wheat will only shell out from sixty to eighty grains. Another advantage is, that this wheat is not so subject to disease as other kinds of wheat, and will withstand high winds and storms. It also grows and matures well westwardly in the 39th degree of north latitude. It is considered to be a superior kind of wheat, and a great acquisition to the agricultural community; and we hope it may at least have a fair trial, when it will prove itself all that its most sanguine friends have said or thought it would be.

THE BONE TRADE.

The Philadelphia North American gives an interesting account of this little-known branch of business, which seems to have been entirely overlooked by Professor Vethake in his edition of McCulloch's Dictionary of Commerce. Certain old men, (says the North American,) women and children, may be seen daily in all parts of Philadelphia gathering up old bones. This branch of business started about four years since, and it gives employment to hundreds, almost thousands, of poor people in Philadelphia. Many of them are able to earn from 50 cents to \$1 each day by these small gatherings by the wayside, and these save themselves and their children from want, or perhaps from the penitentiary. In the county of Philadelphia there are several large establishments where these bones are purchased. One in Moyamensing pays out more than \$100 each week for these apparently worthless materials, gathered in every part of Philadelphia. Bones gathered up in this way, and from such sources, one could hardly imagine are of any value. But the variety of purposes to which they are put shows that, in political economy, nothing is totally worthless. The bones are assorted, and each particular kind is put to a specific purpose. Some are made into neat's foot oil. Others are sold to knife and umbrella makers, while another portion is used by comb, brush, and button manufacturers. Many of them are used in the manufacture of blacking, and printing ink, and by sugar refiners. Even the tallow chandler and manufacturer of soap is deeply indebted to these bones for his success. The bone dust which is made from the refuse part, is purchased by farmers, and greatly tends to enrich the soil. The purposes for which bones are used are almost innumerable. Such is the demand for them in Europe, that the field of Waterloo was thoroughly examined, and every thing remaining of poor humanity there which could be obtained, has been gathered up. In our own country, the value of this article is beginning to be estimated for agricultural purposes, and in all the various departments of business, both of utility and ornament, they constitute an important and valuable species of merchandise.

MANUFACTURE OF CIGARS.

The following information respecting Havana cigars, the use of which is so general, will not be uninteresting to our readers. The greatest manufacturers are Cabanas, Hernandez, Silva, and Rencareuil, besides a hundred others of less note, who make from 10,000 to 100,000 a day. The cigar is composed of two distinct parts, the inside and cover. For these, two different kinds of leaves are used, of which the latter is generally finer in texture as well as more pliant. Those leaves which are to be made on a Tuesday, are damped on Monday evening, and allowed to remain so all night; and when rolled, they are placed on a table, where they are divided into the various qualities of first, second, third, &c., and priced accordingly. Those which are most carefully and beautifully rolled are called *regalias*, and are sold at \$22, \$23, or \$26 per thousand; while the second best, which are of the very same tobacco, and made by the same man, (only with a little less attention to symmetry of form,) are sold at \$14; others are as low as \$6. D. Hernandez employs about fifty men in his manufactory. Of the best common cigars, a good workman can make a thousand in a day; of the *regalias* 600; so that the daily issues from that immense *fabrica* are about 30,000 cigars, which, at \$14 per thousand, would give nearly £100 a day. They pay an export duty of half a dollar per thousand, and an import duty in England of 9s. sterling. Allowing for freight and insurance, 20 per cent profit to the importer, and 20 more to the retailer, the best Havana cigars should be sold in London at £5 per thousand, which is 18d. per 16, or about 1½d. a piece; instead of which they are generally charged from 20s. to 40s., and sometimes 60s., and from 3d. to 4d. a piece. The very best in quality do not find their way to

Europe, and for this simple reason—they are not fashionable ; they are generally dark colored, and a lighter colored and smoothly rolled cigar is preferred to the strong and highly flavored rough-looking ones ; these last are, in general, the most perfect *vade mecum* imaginable for a meditative philosopher. The best tobacco in Havana grows in the Vuelta Abaga, or lower district.

PEPPER AND MUSTARD.

A druggist in London has written and published a letter to a member of parliament, stating that almost every drug and necessary of life is adulterated to an enormous extent before offered for sale in the market. As to the drugs, let them pass ; but the culinary preparations we cannot so easily excuse. The genuine West India cayenne pepper is now made in London, and if it contained nothing but the ground berry of the *piper indica*, selected of a good color, the writer says he could desire no better. But colored sawdust, salt, or vermilion, and other ingredients are added. Ginger is often adulterated with flour and meal, flavored with capsicums to give it the requisite warmth. Mustard seed to the amount of one sixth only, and in many kinds not nearly so much as that, enters into the composition of the best Durham mustard, which is Durham only in name, the rest being composition of some kind, colored with turmeric, and spiced with capsicums. Black pepper is mixed with starch powder and English arrow root, to make white pepper. Coffee is mixed with the burnt root of the dandelion, known as chicory, which, from being ground at the drug mills, is itself liable to adulteration. But we are civilly told this is the French mode, and of course the coffee is much improved by its mixture. Chocolate and cocoa are mixed with ground sago, often itself for sale in any other state.

MADEIRA TEA.

The tea plant is successfully cultivated on a large scale in the island of Madeira, at an elevation of 3000 feet above the sea, by Henry Veitch, British ex-consul. The quality of the leaf is excellent ; the whole theory of preparing it is merely to destroy the herbaceous taste, the leaves being perfect, when, like hay, they emit an agreeable odor. But to roll up each leaf as in China, is found too expensive, although boys and girls are employed at five cents per day. This difficulty is represented as an insuperable obstacle to the successful competition of the new tea plantations in Assam, (British India,) with the still cheaper labor of China. The enterprising ex-consul is now engaged in compressing the tea leaves into small cakes, which can be done at a trifling expense, so as to enable him to export to England immense quantities, at lower prices than would import it from China. Compression would have one important advantage over rolling the leaves. It is performed when the leaf is dry ; whereas, the rolling requires moisture, and subsequent roasting on copper plates is necessary to prevent mustiness. In this process, the acid of the tea acts upon the copper, and causes that astringency which we remark in all the China teas. The *olea fragrans*, the flower of which is used to scent the teas, especially the black, grows luxuriantly in Madeira.

ANTHRACITE WARE.

This ware, made of anthracite coal, has been brought to an astonishing degree of perfection by Mr. Kirk, the patentee. Nothing can excel the beauty of the highly polished candlesticks, astral lamp shades, inkstands, urns, vases, and a great variety of other curious articles, wrought from the variegated anthracite coal of Pennsylvania. It is unquestionably the most brilliant and permanent jet-black polish ever discovered, as no acid will corrode or deface the lustre. This ware will, we are persuaded, when generally known, become quite popular for the various uses for which it is so admirably adapted.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*An Epitome of the History of Philosophy*; being the work adopted by the University of France for Instruction in the Colleges and High Schools. Translated from the French, with Additions, and a Continuation of the History from the time of Reid to the present day. By C. S. HENRY, D.D., Professor of Philosophy and History in the University of the City of New York. Volumes 143 and 144 of Harpers' Family Library.

"What has always been wanting to philosophy," says a celebrated French writer, "and what is still wanting to it, is an enlarged knowledge of itself—in other words, its own history." Such a history is here presented to us—not sufficiently detailed, probably, fully to answer the ends contemplated by Jouffray, but still sufficiently so for the mass of readers, and a work, withal, of admirable clearness and accuracy. We are glad to see among our scholars a growing disposition to cultivate an acquaintance with the new school of French philosophy; for we regard it as approaching nearer to truth, and as being more favorable to the interests of virtue and religion than any other. Professor Henry has rendered a valuable service to the progress of philosophical investigation in our country, and to the reading community, generally, by his excellent translation, and by the important additions made by him to the original work. The fact that this work has been prepared expressly as an elementary book, to be used in the higher seminaries of France, affords at once the strongest assurance of its merits, and recommends it for a similar application in our own colleges and schools.

2.—*Lives of the Ancient Philosophers*. Translated from the French of FENELON; with Notes, and a Life of the Author. By the Rev. JOHN CORMACK. Volume 140 of Harpers' Family Library.

We have read this volume with a high degree of pleasure, and with no little surprise that a work of so much merit, by the celebrated author of *Telemachus*, should be so little known. We can assign no other reason for this than the want of a good translation, which is now happily supplied, and will doubtless give to this charming biography the popularity and fame it so richly deserves. Nothing can be finer than many of the sayings of the old Greek philosophers, nothing more instructive than their lives; and in their philosophical systems, with much that is vicious and false, we find truths the most striking, and sentiments the most just and noble. The beauties of Fenelon's style have been happily preserved by the translator, and the reader of *Telemachus* will recognise the same simple elegance that distinguishes that inimitable work.

3.—*History of the Expedition to Russia, undertaken by the Emperor Napoleon in the year 1812*. By General Count PHILIP DE SEGUR. Volumes 141 and 142 Harpers' Family Library.

Of all the accounts of this memorable campaign, that by Count Segur is the most deeply interesting. "Its eloquent and pictured pages," as they are described by a distinguished English writer, present so vivid a portraiture of the war, that the reader almost imagines himself a spectator or an actor amid its stirring scenes. This mighty expedition is without a parallel in history, whether we consider its force, its objects, or its results; and its disastrous termination furnishes the most striking of all commentaries on the madness of military ambition. These volumes should be studied, therefore, not only for the entertainment and instruction that is to be found in them, but also for the important moral lesson they so emphatically teach.

4.—*The Neutral French, or the Exiles of Nova Scotia*. By Mrs. WILLIAMS, author of "Religion at Home," "Revolutionary Biography," &c. 2 vols. in one; 12mo. pp. 238, 107. Providence: published by the author. 1842.

Mrs. Williams has attempted, in the form of a traditional tale, to embody the history of a people long since extinct as a nation, though still found, in scattered fragments, in various parts of the British provinces of North America, in the "disputed territory," and sometimes incorporated with the Indian tribes. The writer of the tale is a staunch republican, and the enemy of oppression in every form; and she holds a plain but vigorous pen, and has, on the whole, succeeded in making a very readable book.

- 5.—*Conjectures and Researches concerning the Love, Madness, and Imprisonment of Torquato Tasso.* By RICHARD HENRY WILD. 2 vols. 12mo. New York: Alexander V. Blake.

The mystery which has been thrown by time and circumstances round the fate of the illustrious and unfortunate Tasso, has furnished ground for the utmost latitude of conjecture to his numerous critics and biographers. A variety of conflicting theories have been formed respecting the cause of his long imprisonment, some of which were maintained with a fair show of argument, and all with the utmost pertinacity. Mr. Wild steps in and conclusively settles the question—employing principally the best of evidence—the internal evidence of the poet's own writings. He shows that Tasso's madness was feigned, and that the real cause of his ill-treatment by his once friend and patron, Alphonso, Duke of Ferrara, was his passion for the Princess Leonora of Este, the duke's sister; a passion which it is much more than probable was fully returned. Mr. Wild has long been known to the public as an accomplished man and a graceful writer. In his present book he gives evidence of abilities worthy of his reputation and of the interesting subject he has chosen.

- 6.—*Wealth and Worth; or, Which Makes the Man?* 18mo. pp. 204. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1842.

We have no means of knowing who is the author of this interesting story; but we heartily thank him for the pleasure we have experienced in its perusal. It is what it purports to be—an "American Family Tale," and we are glad to learn, the first of a contemplated series under that cognomen. We have long thought, with the author, that our adopted current literature, both for young and old, was unsuited in its tone to a full sympathy with our democratic institutions, and calculated to generate associations with foreign scenes and modes of life, instead of fostering sentiments of attachment to our native soil and people. We therefore hail this excellent tale as the first of a series, the paramount object of which will be to infuse an earnest, independent, American spirit, uncontaminated by intolerance towards other governments and nations; to encourage a taste for gratifications of the intellect in preference to those of the senses, without forgetting the superior importance of the inculcation of those principles of action which a reverential faith in the divine origin of the Christian code of morals enforces. Seriously desirous of encouraging a national, Christian, republican literature, we earnestly commend this volume to the American "people and their children," as not a whit inferior in value or interest to the best of those of English origin of the same class.

- 7.—*Rural Sketches.* By THOMAS MILLER, author of "A Day in the Woods," &c. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1842.

We have never experienced a more delightful surprise than in opening the pages of this book. Its author is no common man. Among the masses of stupid, frivolous, degrading, and foolish trash with which the press teems, whose burning sands it seems rejoicing to spread over the fresh soil of the American mind, it is delightful to find here and there a green and fragrant spot—a fountain of living waters—a cool spring from a true and quickened soul. To say all that we would of these artless yet exquisite sketches, would seem extravagance; yet, not to say something of one whose words reach and rest in our heart of hearts, were indeed injustice. Richer pictures of nature, more beautiful breathings of holy sentiment, deeper pathos, finer touches of chastened humor, not even Wilson or Irving have given us. No one of unperverted taste can muse over these simple narrations without joy: none of right mind can sympathize with this unpretending detail of village reminiscence, and not grow inwardly in the purity, freshness, and power of affection and desire. There are thousands, wherever the English language is spoken, who need but to know what this pearl is to place it at once among those choicest treasures which the heart lingers over and the imagination recurs to with ever-new delight.

- 8.—*The Northern Harp; consisting of Original Sacred and Moral Songs, adapted to the most popular melodies, for pianoforte and guitar.* By MRS. MARY S. B. DANA, author of "The Southern Harp," &c. 4to. pp. 100. New York: Dayton & Saxton. Boston: Saxton & Pierce. 1842.

The titlepage quoted gives a very correct idea of the work. The poetry is all from the pen of the author, as is also a part of the music. It will prove a most acceptable offering to all the lovers of sacred song.

9.—*The Story of Joan of Arc*. By R. M. EVANS, with 24 fine plates. 12mo. pp. 189. New York: Appleton & Co. 1842.

The name of this book is a fraud. Not a third of its pages are taken up with the story of the hapless maid of Orleans. However, we forgive the deception, as the contemporary history is deservedly given in connection with Joan's life; and we cannot fail to approve the good taste which would turn the attention of readers to the exquisite *naïveté*, the interesting detail and vivid description of the early chroniclers. The execution of this book is perfect in its way: the plates are the best of the kind that we have seen: the type clear, bold, and new: the whole finish is at least equal to any thing imported. We rejoice especially that at last English historians are beginning to do justice to a heroine they so foully murdered and so infamously traduced. The saviour of her native land, who, with a slender virgin's hand, turned back the triumphant hosts of invading England, maintaining, as is now established beyond a doubt, unsoiled purity of soul among all the seductions of an abandoned court and a profligate camp, sinning only by the too-fond reference to heaven of the golden dreams of a noble heart, and the aspirations of a courageous spirit, deserves to be remembered and admired through all time.

10.—*A Treatise on the Church of Christ*; designed chiefly for Students in Theology. By the Rev. WILLIAM PALMER, M.A., of Worcester College, Oxford. With a Preface and Notes, by the Right Rev. W. B. Whittingham, D.D., Bishop of Maryland. From the second London edition. 2 vols. 8vo. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1841.

These elegant volumes contain the best statement anywhere given of the historical ground on which the high-church party among Episcopalians would elevate themselves above the rest of mankind. Under the guise of a defence against the growing power of Romanism, an earnest and uncompromising claim is put forward to the sole possession of the name, praise, and power of the one catholic, visible, and infallible church, the pillar and ground of the faith: of course an attempt is made to prove the unsoundness of every other church, to arrogate for itself divine authority, and absorb exclusively that broad title, now effulgent with hues of light varied as the rainbow—the “Apostolic Church of Christ.” We warmly commend the work to those who desire the extension of its well-argued doctrines.

11.—*History of the Great Reformation, of the Sixteenth Century, in Germany, Switzerland, etc.* By G. H. MERLE D'AUBIGNE, President of the Theological School of Geneva, etc. 2 vols. 8vo. New York: Robert Carter. 1841.

This is an original work, drawn from the original sources, containing much matter of which the English public had before known nothing, and, though marked by decided expressions of fervent attachment to the peculiar doctrines of Luther, has the interest of a faithful and vivid narrative. Though many books have been written about the Reformation, this is the first we have met with of the Reformation; the first to lay open the soul of that great movement, and exhibit, not our opinions upon the men of that wonderful era, but the men themselves. Believing that the great need of the church is a universal extension of the free, searching, and progressive spirit of that period of spiritual awakening—believing that those are no true Protestants who press not vigorously forward in the path trod by the earth-shaking steps of Luther and his brethren, we hail the appearance of these interesting volumes with gratitude, hope, and joy.

12.—*The Sidereal Heavens, and other subjects connected with Astronomy, as illustrative of the Character of the Deity, and of an Infinity of Worlds*. By THOMAS DICK, L.L.D., author of “The Celestial Scenery,” etc. Philadelphia: Ed. C. Biddle. 1841.

This work is, in fact, a completion of that on the celestial scenery; and, like it, teems with instruction and interest. It embraces a great deal that is very rarely combined—practical advice and information, lofty philosophy, original speculation, and profound religious sentiment—rising, at times, to eloquence. We are glad to see such works, and trust a discerning public will encourage their publication. The present edition is the only one which does the author justice, or promises the reader comfort. Every school library, and every active and inquiring mind will, of course, become possessed of it, until the fame of Dick shall be as wide as the English tongue, and enduring as that firmament to which his riper thoughts seem wholly consecrated.

- 13.—*An Analytical Digest of the Law of Marine Insurance.* By HENRY SHERMAN, Counsellor at Law, New York. 8vo. pp. 315. New York: Collins, Keese & Co. 1841.

It is a principle of government that its subjects are presumed to know the law of the land, and that a want of such knowledge shall furnish no excuse for violating any law, whether it be imposed on them by custom or statute; we regard, therefore, with much interest, every effort made to bring home to us the duties we owe as well as the rights we may claim. Much expensive litigation to which underwriters are subjected might be spared if the rights and duties flowing from their relations to each other were better understood. To this country, especially, the law of marine insurance is becoming more and more important; and its importance must continue to increase so long as our commercial interests are advancing. By professional men, as well as that numerous class whose interests are staked on the mercies of the ocean, a work like that before us has been much desired. The author has presented an analysis of the law of marine insurance, accompanied with a digest of all the cases adjudged in this state down to the present time, together with an appendix of cases decided in the federal courts of the United States. The work will be found not only useful in our own state, but in any other; and we commend it to all interested in this important branch of American jurisprudence.

- 14.—*Memorial of the Rev. Lewis P. Bayard, D.D.* Edited by J. W. BROWN, A.M., Rector of St. George's church, Astoria, Queen's county, N. Y. 12mo. pp. 272. New York: D. Appleton. 1841.

This volume is designed to preserve some memorials of one whose years were spent in the faithful discharge of Christian duty, no less in the private walks of social and domestic life, than in the office of the Christian ministry, as understood by the Episcopal church. It embraces, besides, a memoir of his life, extracts from his journals and correspondence, notices of his tour through Europe and the Holy Land, selections from his sermons, and the discourse preached on the occasion of his decease, by Bishop Onderdonk, of the diocese of New York.

- 15.—*Gould's Stenographic Reporter.* Vol. 2. 8vo. pp. 416. New York: Gould, Banks & Co.

The volume before us embraces a full and complete report of the late trial of Alexander McLeod, at Utica. The Reporter is to be published in monthly numbers, of sixty-four pages, and is devoted to "the recording of important trials, for treason, murder, highway robbery, mail robbery, conspiracy, riot, arson, burglary, &c.; also, miscellaneous speeches of American statesmen, in congress and state legislatures; lawyers and judges in the Supreme Court of the United States and individual states; political addresses, orations, lectures upon arts, sciences, literature, and morals."

- 16.—*The Life of William Cowper, Esq.* By THOMAS TAYLOR. Second American, from the third London edition. 12mo. pp. 288. Philadelphia: Edward C. Biddle.

This is the most recent among the many memoirs of Cowper published, and was undertaken by Mr. Taylor under the conviction that no previous Life gave "a full, fair, and unbiased view of his character." The writer of course consulted all that preceded this one. It has been compiled from Cowper's correspondence, and other authentic sources of information; and contains besides, remarks on the writings of Cowper, and on the beauties of his character, never before published.

- 17.—*Universal Index, and Every Body's Own Book.* By M. T. C. GOULD, stenographer. Washington City. 1841.

This little work contains directions for saving time, acquiring knowledge and having it at command through life, by means of an appropriate alphabetical key. As its title indicates, it will be found useful to all classes of persons in pursuit of useful knowledge. The plan, we believe, has met the approbation of many of our most distinguished men.

- 18.—*Virginia, or the Lost Found; a tale,* by the author of "Constance, or the Merchant's Daughter." 18mo. pp. 179. New York: Dayton & Saxton. 1842.

"This tale is designed," says the author, "to furnish a popular illustration of some of the modes by which the unwary may be beguiled into religious error, and the young seduced into dissipation and crime."

HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

MARCH, 1842.

ART. I.—MEDITERRANEAN COMMERCE WITH INDIA.

THE commerce of the Indies has already been the theme of able and interesting articles in the preceding numbers of the Merchants' Magazine. Those articles, however, related chiefly, if not exclusively, to the trade of the English and other East India Companies of modern origin, carried on by marine voyages, mostly around the Cape of Good Hope. Prior to the discovery of this grand commercial route, the whole European traffic with India was conducted, through first or second hands, by way of the Mediterranean and Black Seas; whether by the medium of Arabia and the Red Sea, or by way of Persia, the Euphrates and Syria, or by the still more northern route of Turkestan and the Caspian Sea. Such was the commerce which built up the ancient Palmyra and Damascus, Tyre and Alexandria; which gave new importance to the more modern Cairo, Aleppo, and Constantinople; and which ultimately led to bitter rivalry between Venice and Genoa, until it was at length diverted into its present more circuitous channel. A rapid sketch of this oriental commerce, from the earliest times to the present day, will, it is believed, fill an evident chasm in our current mercantile literature.

Whether the ancient Assyrians maintained any intercourse with the further East, is a point on which the few remaining fragments of ancient history contain no information. The student who seeks to examine the progress and polity of the earlier ages, and who recurs for this purpose to the fountain head of all historical knowledge, the most ancient writings themselves, will soon find how little survives, except mere shreds and patches, to make known to us the grand events and mighty influences of the past, on which we mentally gaze, as it were on a few scattered stars breaking through the clouds before the dawn of morning. These remarks apply particularly to our present subject, aside from its own peculiar difficulties. "It is a cruel mortification," observes the learned Dr. Robertson, "in searching for what is instructive in the history of past times, to find the exploits of conquerors who have desolated the earth, and the freaks of tyrants who have rendered nations unhappy, recorded with

minute, and often disgusting accuracy, while the discovery of useful arts, and the progress of the most beneficial branches of commerce, are passed over in silence, and suffered to sink in oblivion."

The earliest trade with the Indies, of which we have an authentic intimation, was that carried on by the Sabæans, or inhabitants of Saba, the Sheba of the Sacred Scriptures. Occupying the extreme southern part of Arabia, now known as the province of Yemen, in Arabia Felix, and being a hardy, adventurous race, the Sabæans gradually extended their voyages eastward, as well as southward, until they established a lucrative trade not only with the adjacent coasts of Africa, but with the western coast of Hindoostan, and the fertile regions of the Indies. Of this commerce we have an interesting account in the history of Persia and Phœnicia by Agatharchides, as quoted by Photius; and his account is corroborated by some notices in the *Periplus of the Erythrean Sea*, (circumnavigation of the Red Sea,) generally attributed to Arrian. We here perceive the source of the immense riches of the Queen of Sheba, as instanced in her splendid presents to Solomon; "an hundred and twenty talents of gold, and of spices very great store: there came no more such abundance of spices as those which the Queen of Sheba gave to King Solomon." Some writers have supposed the kingdom of Sheba to have been the modern Ethiopia; and it did probably include a portion of Africa, contiguous to Arabia, as do the Arabian domains at the present day. But its capital was doubtless the city of Saba, or Mareb, afterward called Arabia Felix, and so named from Saba, one of its ancient kings.

It seems a doubtful question whether the ancient Egyptians ever carried on any direct commerce with India, or whether they only procured their supplies from the Arabians and Phœnicians. Diodorus Siculus indeed states that Sesostris, the Egyptian conqueror, fitted out a fleet of four hundred ships in the Arabian Gulf, which conquered all the countries stretching along the coast of the Erythrean Sea to India; while at the same time his army marched by land beyond the Ganges to the Indian Ocean. But his account is not confirmed by Herodotus, and it is rejected by Strabo; who observes, on the other hand, that the first kings of Egypt were contented with the produce of their own country, neglecting foreign merchandise, and even forbidding the fleets of strangers to approach their coast. This, it may be said, applies to a still earlier period: but certain it is that we have no other account of any Egyptian ships or fleets until after the Grecian conquest; and hence, admitting that caravans traded to Egypt in the days of Joseph, we still strongly doubt whether the ancient Egyptians ever made any commercial voyages to India. If they did, they had ceased to make them in the days of Herodotus and the earlier Greek historians, as we shall have further occasion to observe.

A part of the East Indian commerce appears to have been carried on, from an early period, by the way of the river Euphrates, and thence by caravans to the Mediterranean: but this commerce appears also to have been in the hands of the Arabians, until the Phœnicians, profiting by their skill in navigation, succeeded in fitting out ships of their own, from the Red Sea or the Persian Gulf, to trade directly with the eastern climes. Before the time of Solomon, they obtained possession of Ezion-geber. (or Asion-gaber.) a port at the head of the Elamitic Gulf, east of Mt. Sinai, and at the north end of the Red Sea. They also acquired the port of Rhinocolura, (or Rhinocorura,) the modern El Arisch, on the southeastern

coast of the Mediterranean ; and thus their land-carriage was reduced to the interval between these two ports. In this trade it appears that Solomon, aided by the friendly offices of Hiram, king of Tyre, participated. He visited Ezion-geber in person, constructed ships there, and received others from King Hiram ; who "sent in the navy his servants, shipmen that had knowledge of the sea, with the servants of Solomon. And they came to Ophir, and fetched from thence gold, four hundred and twenty talents, and brought it to King Solomon. And the servants also of Hiram, [Hiram,] and the servants of Solomon, which brought gold from Ophir, brought algum-trees, and precious stones. For the king's ships went to Tarshish with the servants of Hiram, [Hiram:] every three years once came the ships of Tarshish, bringing gold, and silver, ivory, and apes, and peacocks." Some writers suppose Ophir to have been situated on the eastern coast of Africa ; and Calmet places it at the sources of the Euphrates and Tigris : but the time required for the voyage, as well as the articles procured, rather corroborate the opinion that it was a region of the East Indies, perhaps the island of Ceylon, having Tarshish for its capital.

The Phœnicians appear also to have availed themselves of the route to India by way of the Euphrates, which, considering their more northern location, afforded some peculiar advantages. The fact that Solomon built the city of Tadmor in the Wilderness, affords a strong presumption that he participated also in the traffic by this route. Tadmor was undoubtedly the city afterward called Palmyra by the Romans ; its Syriac, as well as its Latin name, alike signifying the City of Palms. Josephus states that it is one day's journey from the Euphrates, two from Upper Syria, and six from Babylon ; and he mentions that Solomon took possession of it on account of its affording a supply of water. This water could have been needed only for caravans crossing the desert ; and hence it was probably used as a watering station long before the time of Solomon, and valuable to him as securing his intercourse with the east. The city which he built, was long since totally destroyed ; and the magnificent ruins extant on its site, as described by Mr. Wood, are of Grecian and Roman origin, buildings erected in much later times. Palmyra was subjugated by Alexander the Great, 331 B. C., and it submitted to the Romans, A. D. 130 ; but still continued to be an interstation for the commerce of the east. It again became independent under Oudenatus ; but his surviving queen, Zenobia, was subjugated by Aurelian, A. D. 275 ; and the city was finally sacked by the Saracens in 744. Damascus was on the direct route from Palmyra to Tyre, and doubtless owed much of its wealth to its oriental commerce. In this trade the Persians also took part ; and we are told by Herodotus that Darius Hystaspes, after having crossed the Indus in person, sent Scylax of Caryanda to explore that river and the countries bordering upon it. Scylax sailed down the Indus from Caspatyrus, and coasting the Arabian Sea arrived, after two years and a half, in the Red Sea ; when he gave so favorable an account of the regions which he had visited, that Darius was induced to extend his conquests eastward, about 500 B. C.

The commerce of the Indies received a new impulse from the conquests of Alexander the Great. Realizing the value of this trade, from the wealth and strength of Tyre, which had so long sustained itself against his attacks, no sooner did he become master of Egypt than he built the

famous city of Alexandria, as an entrepot, through which his own countrymen might most easily obtain the luxuries of the east. The site of this city was chosen by Alexander himself, 333 B. C. ; and he is said to have traced the plan of it, in the absence of proper instruments, by strewing meal along the lines on which the walls were to be erected. It was laid out with straight and parallel streets, crossing each other at right angles ; one of which, called the Arrow, was 200 feet wide, and ran the whole length of the city, from the gate of the sea on the west to the gate of Canopus on the east, a distance of five miles. This was crossed by another street of the same breadth, forming a central square at their junction, a mile and a half in perimeter. On these two principal streets, the noblest in the world, stood the magnificent temples, palaces, public buildings, and obelisks of marble, sienite, and porphyry, the ruins of which still attest the munificence of Alexander and his Egyptian successors. The harbor of Alexandria was a deep and secure bay, sheltered on the north by the island of Pharos, with which the city was connected by a mole or pier a mile in length, and on which was the celebrated lighthouse, reckoned as one of the seven wonders of the world. The first inhabitants of the new city were a mixture of Egyptians and Greeks, but many Jews were subsequently attracted thither by the facilities of trade and the free toleration afforded to their religion.

Having founded this great emporium, Alexander proceeded to complete the conquest of Persia, and then performed his Indian expedition, in which he advanced beyond the Indus, as far as the river Hyphasis, the modern Beyali, and would have reached the Ganges had not his exhausted troops refused to go any further. Returning to the Indus, he collected a large fleet, which sailed down that river, while a part of the army kept pace with it by land. Having reached its mouth, Alexander returned with the army by land to Persia ; but the fleet, under Nearchus and Onesicritus, proceeded around by sea to the Euphrates. Nearchus afterward gave an account of the regions which he had visited, and thus greatly extended the information which the Europeans then possessed concerning India. Seleucus, succeeding Alexander in the east, also invaded India with success ; but being compelled to return, to defend his domains against Antigonus, he made peace with Sandracottus, and sent Megasthenes as his ambassador to Palibothra, the capital of the Prasii, which Dr. Robertson supposes to be the modern Allahabad, on the Ganges. Megasthenes published still more extended accounts of India, though not unmingled with the marvellous : and Arrian, Strabo, and Diodorus Siculus appear to have almost literally transcribed his descriptions in their historical and geographical works.

Meanwhile Ptolemy, after the death of Alexander, having acquired the sovereignty of Egypt, used every means of compulsion and encouragement, to draw away the trade from the Phœnicians to Alexandria, until at length this city supplied not only Egypt, but a large portion of the other Mediterranean coasts with the produce and manufactures of the east. They were chiefly procured in Arabia, and landed on the west coast of the Red Sea ; then carried by camels across the desert, and floated down the Nile, which, with the help of a canal communication, conveyed them to Alexandria. Thus, Theophrastus, who was contemporary with the first Ptolemy, informs us that vessels sailed from Heroöpolis, a port at the head of the northwest branch of the Red Sea, to Sabæa, where they pur-

chased frankincense, myrrh, cassia, cinnamon, and other oriental commodities. But as the navigation of the extreme northern part of the Red Sea was found to be very dangerous, Ptolemy Philadelphus built the city of Berenice, on the western shore, a little to the north of the tropic; and established caravansaries or watering stations at short intervals from thence to Coptos on the Nile, a distance of 258 Roman miles, which was traversed by caravans in one week. It is contended by some writers that the Egyptians traded directly to India in their own vessels; and that Ptolemy Philadelphus sent Dionysius, a mathematician, to make researches in the Indies. Strabo indeed reports, upon the credit of Posidonius, that under Ptolemy Euergetes II., about 140 B. C. a famished Indian was found in a vessel in the Arabian Gulf, who had lost his reckoning, and whose shipmates had perished of hunger; and that he piloted the Egyptians sent to the Indies with presents, from whence they brought back spices and precious stones. But this statement, if credited, would bring the commencement of this commerce to a later age than those writers assign; and we shall soon offer further reasons for doubting whether the Egyptians carried on a direct trade with India, before the Roman conquest.

The Phœnicians, though harassed by the Egyptians upon the Red Sea, still kept up their intercourse with the Indies by way of the Euphrates; and the Greeks themselves, emboldened by the explorations of Alexander as far north as the Oxus or Gihon river, engaged in the transportation of goods down that river from the Indus, and thence by the way of the Black Sea and Byzantium to their own country. According to Strabo, the goods were collected at Patala, the present Tatna, near the mouth of the Indus, and thence carried up this river as far as it was then navigable; after which they were transported by caravans to the Oxus. From the Oxus to the Black Sea there were three different routes. One was down this river to the Sea of Aral; thence to the northern part of the Caspian Sea, and by the rivers Rha (the Wolga,) and Tanais (the Don,) to the Sea of Azoph. But the more common route was from the Oxus river to the Ochus, now the Tedjen, which falls into the Caspian towards the south; and thence by the rivers Cyrus and Phasis, now the Kur and Rioni, directly to the Black Sea. The third route, coinciding in part with the last mentioned, was from the Caspian to the Black Sea over the Caucasian mountains, to the north of the Cyrus and Phasis, and involving a greater extent of land transportation. We are not able to learn that any of these routes were in use before the time of Alexander, but they appear to have been so not long after it.

It was not until Egypt had been conquered by the Romans, 31 B. C., that the merchants of Alexandria, profiting by their new facilities for trade, ventured to send their own ships to India, instead of obtaining their goods at second-hand from the Arabians. This is evident from Strabo, who visited Egypt, 21 B. C., and afterward observes in his Geography, that, as the vessels of Alexandria *now* sail even as far as India, many things respecting distant countries are much better known than they were formerly. He himself saw 120 vessels, small ones of course, sail from Myos Hormos, a port of the Red Sea, to India; and he elsewhere observes that formerly there were not twenty vessels that ventured beyond the entrance of the Arabian Gulf; but now large fleets sail as far as India and the furthest coasts of Ethiopia, from which the most precious articles of merchandise are brought to Egypt. Arrian also, in his Periplus of the

Erythrean Sea, before alluded to, informs us that the city of Arabia Felix, a port of Sabæa, probably the present Aden, was called the Happy, because, when as yet no person sailed from India to Egypt, they proceeded only to that city, which was a mart for the merchandise of both these countries. Arrian adds that the passage from Egypt to India was begun by coasting with small ships; and that the pilot Hippalus was the first that traversed this great sea. Dr. Robertson states that Hippalus was the commander of a ship engaged in the India trade; and that having observed the regularity of the monsoons, he ventured, about eighty years after the Roman conquest of Egypt, to stretch boldly across the Indian Ocean to Musiris, which he thus reached by a shorter route. In honor of this discovery, the southwest monsoon was afterward called by his name.

This important improvement in navigation enabled the Alexandrians to use larger vessels, and visit more distant ports; so much did these periodical winds expedite their voyages and increase their safety. Sailing from Berenice, about the middle of the summer, they touched at Ocellis or Arabia Felix, and thence sailed directly to Musiris, now Merjee, or to Barace, south of it, both centrally situated on the western coast of Hindoostan. Thence they usually coasted northward to Baragyza at the mouth of the Nerbuddah, and to Patala, near the mouth of the Indus; and they returned from India with the northeast monsoon, about the time of the winter solstice, thus completing the voyage within the year. According to Pliny, the island of Taprobana or Ceylon was first visited accidentally by the ships of Annius Plocamus, which were driven upon it by a tempest. Ceylon thereupon sent ambassadors to Rome, who gave an account of their own commerce with the Seres, or Chinese. In the time of Strabo, however, a few Egyptian vessels had sailed as far as the Ganges; and they afterward ascended that river to Palibothra, which was either the modern Patna or Allahabad. The Chinese historians, according to M. De Guignes, relate that An-toun, king of the people of the Western Ocean, sent an embassy to Oanti, the emperor of China, for commercial purposes. This is understood to refer to the emperor M. A. Antoninus, who began to reign A. D. 161; but the whole account requires corroboration. Ammianus Marcellinus speaks of great fairs held at Batné, in Mesopotamia, in the reign of Constantius, to which goods were brought from India and Seris, or China.

Arrian, the reputed author of the *Periplus of the Erythrean Sea*, is supposed by Dr. Vincent to have been an earlier writer than Arrian the philosopher, and to have flourished about the middle of the first century of our era. His *Periplus* gives us some minute and interesting particulars concerning the cargoes of the ships then employed in the Indian trade. To Patala they exported woollen cloth of a slight fabric, linen in checker work, some precious stones and some aromatics unknown in India, together with storax, coral, glass vessels, and some wrought silver, money and wine. In return for these, they obtained spices of various kinds, sapphires, and other gems, silk stuffs and silk thread, cotton cloths, and black pepper. To Baragyza they also exported brass, tin, lead, girdles or sashes, melilot, white glass, arsenic, and black-lead, receiving in return the onyx and other gems, ivory, myrrh, various kinds of cotton goods, both plain and ornamented, and long pepper. The exports from Musiris were still more rare and valuable, including pearls in great abundance and of great beauty, various silk stuffs, rich perfumes, tortoise shell, vari-

ous transparent gems, especially diamonds, and pepper in large quantities and of the best quality. This was the commerce which so enriched Alexandria that Firmus, a merchant of that city towards the end of the third century of our era, not only possessed a whole fleet of merchant ships trading in the east, but he was able to maintain an army, and made himself master of Alexandria until he was defeated and slain by the emperor Aurelian.

In the reign of the emperor Justinian, Cosmas, an Egyptian merchant, who had traded to India, and thence acquired the appellation of Indico-pleustes, retired to a convent and wrote a work entitled Christian Topography; from which we learn that the Persians having overturned the empire of the Parthians, were then carrying on a trade with India, by the Persian Gulf and its tributary rivers. He says, however, that the merchants only visited India, and not eastern Asia, trading no further than at Serendib, now Ceylon, for the spices and silks of the east. It is he who states that the Persians monopolized the silk trade, until two Persian monks visited China, and observed the labors of the silkworm and the mode of manufacturing silk, of all which they informed Justinian, A. D. 553. By him they were induced to return to China, and to bring away clandestinely the eggs of the silkworm, concealed in hollow canes. These were hatched by the heat of a dunghill, fed with the leaves of the wild mulberry tree, and thenceforward the manufacture of silk became established in Greece. Thence it was soon extended to Sicily, and, in the time of the crusades, to Venice. Craufurd, however, in his *Indian Researches*, denies that silk was raised only in China, quoting the *Institutes of Menu* to prove that it was produced also in Hindoostan. He adds, upon the authority of Sir William Jones, that both silk and indigo were produced there from the earliest period.

The great mass of the commerce with India continued to be carried on by way of the Red Sea, until the conquest of Egypt by the Saracens; when a large portion of it was transferred to the Black Sea and Constantinople. But the Arabians soon resumed their ancient rank as the first commercial people in the world, while the gloom of the dark ages gathered over the nations of Europe. Their conquests gave them many harbors in the Mediterranean Sea, as well as the entire command of the Indian Ocean; and enabled them to establish factories, and extend their voyages beyond the excursions of their predecessors, who had gone no further than the Gulf of Siam. They became acquainted with Sumatra, and the other islands of the Indian Archipelago; and advanced as far as the city of Canton in China, where they became so numerous that the emperor permitted them to have a *cadi*, who judged them according to their own Mohammedan laws. The Caliph Omar, a few years after the conquest of Persia, founded the city of Bassora, to command the Euphrates and the Tigris; and it soon became a place of trade scarcely inferior to Alexandria. The removal of the Mohammedan capital from Cufa to Damascus, A. D. 673, and from thence to Bagdad, after the building of that city by the Caliph Almansor in 762, gave increased importance to the route up the Euphrates; though the building of Cairo, A. D. 984, by Moaz Ladinallah, the Fatimite conqueror of Egypt, and the subsequent policy of the sultans of Cairo secured eventually to Egypt a large portion of the Indian trade.

Meanwhile the city of Venice was rising from the isles of the Adriatic;

and as early as the eighth century it became the great European mart for oriental goods ; as its merchants, driven to seek employment abroad, became the chief traders to Alexandria, Constantinople, and the cities of the Levant. Their career, both of successes and reverses, it is unnecessary here to follow, as it has formed the subject of an able and eloquent article in a recent number of this magazine. The commerce of the east, we may simply remark, was the life-blood of Venice. For this it gained the friendship and alliance of the Mameluke sultans of Egypt and the Greek emperors at Constantinople ; for this it waged long wars with Genoa and Pisa, and afterward with the Greek emperors themselves, when they favored the Genoese ; for this it embarked in the crusades, and fitted out vast fleets to the Holy Land, as the price of commercial privileges there secured to it : and with the wealth thus obtained it made conquests of the neighboring coasts, while robing itself in splendor, and weaving its gem-like islands into a gorgeous crown, as sovereign of the sea.

The crusades gave a new stimulus to oriental commerce, by making the rich productions of the Indies more extensively known to the inhabitants of Western Europe. After the expulsion of the crusaders from Jerusalem, A. D. 1187, Acre, (St. Jean d'Acre,) reconquered by them in 1191, became their chief residence, and was for some time the principal emporium of the Mediterranean ; the Christian merchants of Italy resorting thither to trade with the Mohammedan merchants of the east. But the disturbances produced by the crusades, as well as the unsettled state of Egypt and Syria, had greatly increased the trade to India by way of the Caspian and Azof seas, through Samarcand and Astrachan from Constantinople. The capture of Constantinople in 1204, during the fourth crusade, in which the crusaders were aided by the Venetians, secured to the latter the chief commerce of this city, under the reign of Baldwin and his immediate successors. The Venetians made Tana or Azof, near the mouth of the Don, their chief entrepot for the commerce of the Black and Caspian seas ; while they acquired extensive domains in Greece, and other parts of the empire. But in 1261, the Genoese aided the Greek emperors to regain their throne, in return for which assistance they received Pera, (or Galata,) a suburb of Constantinople, which they strongly fortified, and continued to hold until the Turkish conquest in 1453. They soon expelled the Venetians from the Crimea, or Tauric Chersonesus, and there established Kaffa (or Caffa,) on the ruins of the ancient Theodosia, as the chief seat of their trade with the east. This city was wrested from them by the Turks, in 1474.

The Venetians, thus deprived of the Indian trade by way of the Black Sea, resorted to Damascus and Alexandria for supplies, and succeeded in propitiating the Mameluke sovereign of Egypt. Galvano, in his *Chronology of Discoveries*, states that in the year 1300, the Soldan of Cairo gave orders that the merchandise of India should be carried through that country, as it had been in previous ages. At this period Sanuto, (Sanudo or Sanuti,) a Venetian nobleman, states that articles of small bulk and high value, as cloves, nutmegs, mace, gems, pearls, &c., were carried by way of Bassora and Bagdad, to some port on the Mediterranean ; but all more bulky goods, as pepper, ginger, cinnamon, &c., with a part of the more valuable articles, were conveyed by way of the Red Sea and the Nile, to Alexandria ; this latter route being much the safest. In a speech of Mocenigo, Duke of Venice, about the year 1420, we are informed that the

Venetians sent annually to Egypt and Syria 500,000 ducats in money, besides merchandise, part of which consisted of woollen goods received from Florence.* They had 3,345 vessels, carrying 36,000 seamen ; and 16,000 carpenters were constantly employed in their dockyards.

At length arrived the epoch of a mighty change in the Mediterranean commerce with India ; when Vasco da Gama, with a Portuguese fleet of three small vessels, after doubling the Cape of Good Hope, reached the haven of Calicut, on the 22d day of May, in the year 1498. The sovereign of Calicut, called the Zamorin, appears to have had a kind of imperial authority over several neighboring kings ; this city being then the chief seat of commerce on the western coast of Hindoostan. The Mohammedans of Arabia were the principal traders, and contributed largely, by their duties or customs, to the Zamorin's income. They were much alarmed at the arrival of the Portuguese, their enemies in religion, and their rivals in trade ; and they so far prevailed against them with the Zamorin as to induce him to imprison Da Gama, who had come on shore by invitation, and whom they represented as a pirate banished from his native country. At length Gama was released, and after several romantic incidents returned with two ships to Portugal, but without having formed any permanent establishment in Hindoostan. That task was reserved for Cabral, who sailed from Portugal with thirteen ships and fifteen hundred men, and after discovering Brazil on the way, arrived with only six ships at Calicut, in August, 1500. Cabral triumphed over all the intrigues of the Mohammedans ; and upon their exciting an insurrection against the Portuguese in Calicut, he attacked and destroyed ten of their largest ships, slew, it is said, six hundred of their men, and made slaves of the remainder.

The Portuguese soon obtained a firm foothold in India, notwithstanding repeated attempts to dislodge them. The Venetians, roused to fury by the rapid decline of their trade, stirred up the Mameluke Soldan of Cairo, whose interests also suffered from the same cause, first to demand of Pope Julius II. and King Emanuel, that the Portuguese should retire from India ; and on failing in this demand, to attempt to expel them by force. He fitted out a fleet of twelve ships of war at Suez, procuring the timber from the forests of Dalmatia, owned by the Venetians, who also supplied artisans to direct the building and equipment. This fleet, manned by the Mamelukes, was met and defeated by the Portuguese under Almeyda, in 1508 ; and Egypt was soon after subjugated by the Turks. But in 1538, Solyman the Magnificent, actuated by the same motives, fitted out another more powerful fleet in the Red Sea, under a confidential officer, with such a body of Janizaries as he deemed sufficient not only to drive out all the Portuguese from India, but to seize upon some commodious station in that quarter, and thence extend his conquests. This expedition also was repulsed, by splendid efforts of valor and constancy, and driven back with ignominy into the Arabian harbors. Thus the Mohammedan commerce with India was greatly restricted, while Portugal, Spain, Holland, France,

* In those days England exported some woollen cloth, but much more wool in a raw state ; and though the Venetians imported into England a vast variety of spices and other expensive articles, the balance of trade was in favor of the English, to the amount of 100,000 ducats annually.

and Great Britain, successively bore away the prize, not without oppression and slaughter of the unhappy natives.

At the period of the Portuguese conquests, according to Barros, their own historian, Malacca, owing to its central situation, was the great emporium of the native commerce of India. Thither were carried the cloves, nutmegs, and mace of the Molucca and Banda islands, the sandal wood of Timor, the camphor of Borneo, the gold and silver of Luçonia, and the pepper, drugs, dyestuffs, perfumes, rich silks, porcelains, &c., of Java, Siam, and China, to be exchanged for the merchandise of Hindoostan. The cities of Calicut and Cambay on the western coast of Hindoostan, Ormus in the Persian Gulf, and Aden on the south coast of Arabia, were particularly enriched by the trade with Malacca; and they also traded to Pegu for rubies and lacker, to Bengal and the Deccan for cloths, muslins, and chintzes, to Cachemire for shawls, to Kilkare (Calicare or Karical) for pearls, to Narsinga and Golconda for diamonds, to Ceylon for cinnamon and rubies, and to the coast of Malabar for pepper, ginger, and many other spices. From Ormust, the oriental goods were carried to Bassora, and thence, by the Euphrates and by caravans, to Armenia, to Trebizond on the Black Sea, and to Aleppo, Damascus, and Beyruth, where they were sold to the Venetians, Genoese, and Catalonians. From Aden, goods were transported up the Red Sea to Tor or Suez, and thence in three days to Cairo, where caravans were supplied for the interior of Africa. The remainder, with the ivory and gold of Africa, was carried down the Nile to Alexandria. Some India goods were also carried entirely overland; by the way of Cashgar and Balk, even as far as Russia and the coasts of the Baltic Sea.

The immediate effect of the Portuguese commerce with India was to cause a great reduction in the prices of oriental commodities. The Venetians still sent their ships to the great mart of Antwerp, but they could no longer compete with the merchants of Lisbon, although the latter bought at high prices from the king's warehouses, owing to the royal monopoly. As a last attempt, they made a proposal, in 1521, to buy all the spice imported by the king of Portugal, at a stipulated price; a proposal which was of course rejected. The fate of Venice was sealed; the fountain of her wealth was not exhausted, but the current was chiefly turned into another channel, in which the oriental commerce of Europe has continued to flow, varying only in the recipients of its golden tide, down to the present day. The Mohammedan cities of the Mediterranean still maintain some intercourse with India, but it is chiefly for the purpose of supplying themselves with the luxuries of the east, and not as the carriers of Christendom, which they were before the voyage of Da Gama. Damascus still sends forth its annual caravans, as when, in 1432, Brocquiere described them as composed of 3,000 camels; and they still number from 100,000 to 200,000 souls; but it is to perform their annual pilgrimage to Mecca, and there to trade with the similar annual caravans from Cairo, for the merchandise of Africa. Alexandria is mostly in ruins, Bassora and Bagdad have much declined; and the commerce of the Ottoman empire alone sustains its remaining cities in a comparatively moderate state of opulence and splendor.

Great efforts have been made by the Russian government, ever since the light of civilization dawned upon it, to secure an adequate portion of the commerce with India. The conquests of John Basilowitz, and the ex-

pedition of Peter the Great to the Black Sea, opened the way, by which their successors have duly profited. The internal navigation from the White and the Baltic to the Black and Caspian seas has been improved, by canals and other extensive works ; and new facilities have been afforded to the intercourse between the southern territories of Russia and the Persian Gulf, the Indies, and the frontiers of China. The Russians were formerly permitted to send an annual caravan directly to Peking for the purposes of trade ; it being stipulated that the number of persons in each caravan should not exceed two hundred, and that they should be secluded, at Peking, in a caravansary allotted for their use. But the Chinese government became jealous of these visitors, and after various negotiations it was finally agreed that the trade should be carried on at two small contiguous towns, one on the frontiers of each country. Kiachta in Siberia and Maimatchin in Chinese Tartary, south of Lake Baikal, were selected for the purpose ; and there the metals, furs, leather, cloth, glass, &c., of Russia are exchanged for the tea, silk, cotton, porcelain, toys, &c., of China. The annual value of this trade is supposed to amount to about 2,000,000 dollars.

The application of steam to oceanic navigation as well as to extensive land-carriage, may yet restore the European commerce of India to its former channels by the Red Sea and the Euphrates. In consequence of resolutions passed by a committee of the house of commons in 1834, the East India Company, early in 1836, commenced running a line of steam packets from Suez to Bombay, by which the British mails have since been transported to India. The vessels employed for this purpose were the *Hugh Lindsay*, built in 1829, and the *Atalanta*, *Berenice*, and *Semiramis*, built in 1836 ; all of which, we believe, are still in service, as mentioned in this Magazine, Vol. 5, p. 185, where further particulars are given concerning them. The route by way of the Euphrates has also been recently examined, and found to be more feasible than was anticipated. Col. Chesney, who was sent by the British ministry in 1835, ascertained that the river Orontes is navigable as far as Latakia, the ancient Antioch ; and that a road might easily be constructed from thence to Belis, on the Euphrates, a distance of forty-five leagues. In 1840, we are informed that the East India Company sent a vessel with two iron steamboats, which ascended the Euphrates to Belis, 1100 miles from its mouth, and found that it was easily navigable, except where it was obstructed towards its mouth by the remains of ancient water-wheels, which could readily be removed. It is stated also that coal and iron are found in abundance at the foot of Mt. Taurus, in the midst of extensive oak forests. If this be all true, it would seem to be a slight task for British enterprise to construct a railroad from Belis to Latakia, or to Scanderoon, (*Alexandretta*.) and thus connect the navigation of the Euphrates with that of the Mediterranean. This would be the shortest route between England and India ; and it is supposed that the journey from Bombay to Liverpool might be made in thirty-three days : viz, sixteen days from Bombay to Belis, two from Belis to Scanderoon, and fifteen days from thence to Liverpool ; which would be a material abridgment of the time now employed. We wish all success to the enterprise ; regarding all such improvements in the means of intercourse between distant regions, as among the most powerful agents for civilizing and evangelizing the whole human race.

ART. II.—THE EQUATION OF PAYMENTS.

THE ordinary process for the equation of payments produces an *equitable* result, but at great expense of time and labor; and it is unquestionably a desideratum to simplify the process and expedite the result without compromising its accuracy. But there are questions involved in the interpretation of the statute for the computation of interest which require consideration before a *legal* equation can be obtained. This is the language of the statute: "For the purpose of calculating interest, a month shall be considered as the twelfth part of a year, and as consisting of thirty days; and interest for any number of days less than a month shall be estimated by the proportion which such a number of days shall bear to thirty."

"Whenever in any statute, act, deed, written or verbal contract, in any public or private instrument whatever, any certain rate of interest is or shall be mentioned, and no period of time is stated for which such rate is to be calculated, interest shall be calculated at the rate mentioned by the year in the *same* manner as if the words per annum or by the year had been added to such rate."

This latter clause determines the manner of computing interest for *any* rate to be the same as for seven per cent. Now, it must be evident that the average date of an account or the mean time must be that date or time on which, if interest were computed before and after it, there would be no balance; and in order therefore to obtain a *legal* mean, we must compute interest according to the provision of the law. It may here be observed that those who average accounts by the usual formula, must in consistency advocate the estimate of interest on that construction of the law which considers each day as the one 360th part of the year.

There are *four* distinct methods of computation in use, and as they produce varieties of result, so they may produce various means when applied to the equation of payments. It is, as we have stated, usage with many to estimate interest by calendar months and days, considering each calendar month as the one twelfth part of a year, (or thirty days and five twelfths of a day,) and the day as the one thirtieth part of the month; by this method the day will actually yield $\frac{1}{360}$ th of the rate for the year, and the inequalities in the length of the calendar months will strictly create a different rate of interest for each class of months; and the combination of these various rates will produce results utterly at variance with equity and the probable intention of the law. We are informed that it is customary to compute interest on accounts in suit, judgments, &c., by calendar months and days, not so much because this is supposed to be the intention of the law, as because it is believed to be the construction least liable to contest, and may claim the support of general usage. We are not aware of any interpretation of the statute by our courts which settles its principle definitively. We beg attention to the various results of this general application of the law, and its manifest violation of equity. The actual effect of the legal provision as generally applied is not to establish a uniform rate of interest, but to create a diversity of rates, and utterly to fail of any wise intention.

The evil is of far greater magnitude than is at first view apparent; and it demands attention and remedy. For instance, the time from any day in January to the same day in February is considered one month or $30\frac{1}{2}$ days, while in truth the time is 31 days; instead therefore of obtaining

interest for this time at the rate of seven per cent for the year of 365 days, we obtain it only at the rate of seven per cent for 372 days, less than $6\frac{27}{80}$ per cent per annum: again, the time from any day in February to the same day in March being considered one month, we obtain interest for this time at the rate of seven per cent for 336 days, or more than $7\frac{1}{8}$ per cent per annum; during leap year we obtain interest for this time at the rate of seven per cent for 348 days, or more than $7\frac{1}{3}$ per cent per annum: again, the time from any day in April to the same day in May being considered one month, we obtain interest at the rate of seven per cent for 360 days, or nearly $7\frac{1}{8}$ per cent per annum; and in short, for no time less than a year is it possible, by this construction, to obtain interest at the rate of seven per cent for the year of 365 days, but interest will be obtained of as many rates as these combinations of seven per cent for 336 days, for 348 days, 360 days, and 372 days, will furnish, in fact at a rate ranging from $6\frac{27}{80}$ per cent per annum to $7\frac{1}{8}$ per cent per annum—nearly 1 per cent. Many of the estimates by this method must be deemed usurious, or inequitable, and the slightest consideration of the unequal operation of this construction will justify its immediate abandonment. It affords no argument in favor of this usage that the average of the rates is an equitable average; if the method of computation, whatever it be, should produce *any* inequitable results, there is sufficient ground for its condemnation and rejection; an equitable method can be applied, and if it conflict with the statute book, the legal provisions should be amended: yet when a law exists, it should govern; and till the amendment of an inequitable law, the first proper question to be discussed is, what is the intention of that law? The authority of the law is independent of its equitable provisions, and till amended it should be enforced and obeyed in all its imperfection. The strict enforcement and obedience of the unjust law is the surest pledge of its remedy and correction. Legislation is surely competent to the enactment of an inequitable law, and every ununiform rate of interest must be deemed inequitable. An opinion prevails that a uniform rate yielding a given per centage in more or less than precisely one year is inequitable and erroneous; but in truth, it is the necessity of the equitable legal rate that it be uniform; there is no injustice in a rate yielding a given per centage for any given number of days.

The second method of computation alluded to estimates by calendar months and by days, considering each day as the $\frac{1}{365}$ th part of the year. This method approximates to equity more nearly than the other; yet we cannot perceive that any possible construction can be given to the law which will support this usage; for, whatever time may be determined to constitute a legal month, this determination cannot affect the fact that the law recognises each day less than thirty as the $\frac{1}{365}$ th part of the year. Decisions, it is possible, may have been had in our courts establishing that each and *every* day shall not be considered as the $\frac{1}{365}$ th part of a year, but there exists scarcely a probability that these decisions are intended to apply to any number of days less than thirty. The statute we have quoted contains all the authority we need examine, for former conflicting laws are abrogated by its passage, and such a decision as that supposed would be the most flagrant and palpable violation of the letter of this law; we therefore hesitate not to say that the law distinctly and unequivocally recognises each day less than thirty as the $\frac{1}{365}$ th part of a year.

The third method considers each day as the $\frac{1}{365}$ th part of a year, and

certainly has a great preference over either of the former—it is equitable in three of every four years; but it produces in leap year results which are too large by the $\frac{1}{365}$ th part. This is a slight objection to its adoption. There is, however, a strong reason why the method should *not* be adopted. It can by no possibility be reconciled with the law; and however equal it may be in its rate, it is illegal and cannot be sustained. There prevails with many an opinion that this method *must* be the legal intention, because it is uniform in its rate and exact in its results. Many subject themselves to needless labor, adopting tedious processes of computation, because they would advocate and establish a method based upon strict justice, and destroy diversities of usage. The spirit which prompts them is commendable, but the remedy must be found in the amendment of the law. Till the law is amended, diversity of practice will prevail, and the unscrupulous will not hesitate to adopt that method which will most promote their interest, urging law and usage as may best fit their purposes. The methods given in the December number were predicated upon 360 days to the year, instead of 365 days; we believe the estimate of 360 days to be *legal*, but those methods will easily furnish *equitable* interest in the following manner. From the balance or amount of interest on an account at seven per cent, as ascertained by those methods, deduct the $\frac{1}{365}$ th part, and the result will be the same as if the interest had been estimated on each amount separately by the equitable process. A writer in this Magazine for January suggests a method of estimate for equitable interest at seven per cent similar to that in use for six per cent, i. e. multiplying the dollars of the principal by the days, and dividing by a common divisor. In many cases this method would obtain results sufficiently accurate, but it will be found that the divisor obtained has an interminable decimal, which would occasionally seriously affect its usefulness. The same objection may be urged against the use of “Burritt’s Universal Multipliers.” The theory upon which they are constructed would be valuable, if the multipliers could be brought to an immediate decimal termination; as they cannot, the theory is worthless. The multiplier for one day at seven per cent for 365 days for instance, instead of being 19, is 19.178082; and so on, repeating this series to infinity. The worthlessness of the theory can easily be established by a comparison of results obtained by the use of these multipliers for various sums and times, where the product of the multiplication of the sums by the times is the same; for instance, it must be apparent that the interest on \$1,000 for 8 days is the same as \$8,000 for 1 day, or \$2,000 for 4 days, or \$4,000 for 2 days; because the multiplication of the sums by the times yields the same product. Now, by the use of Burritt’s Multipliers, we produce, as the interest of \$1,000 for 8 days, at 7 per cent for 365 days . \$1.53

Also, the interest of \$2,000 for 4 days 1.54

Also, the interest of \$4,000 for 2 days 1.52

And the interest of \$8,000 for 1 day 1.52

The first result only is correct. The exact answer would be 1,53.424657; and so on, repeating the eight terminating decimals ad infin. This result can be obtained neither by the use of *multipliers* nor *divisors*. We repeat that the spirit of those who object to the estimates predicated upon 360 days to the year is most commendable, and it was far from our desire to attempt a justification of an illegal or inequitable usage among merchants, on the plea of a saving of time or labor in making computations. The law is ambiguous and needs amendment, and should be so amended as to

secure each of the three following objects:—1st. The establishment of an *invariable* rate of interest; 2d. (and some concessions should be made to promote this object,) The rate should admit of *ease and rapidity of estimate*; and, 3d. The simplicity and distinctness of the law should *forbid its misconstruction or misapplication*. With such a law, all diversities would vanish, and much litigation be prevented. There needs no legislation as heretofore as to the *method* of estimate—the *rate only* needs to be distinctly determined. Suppose it to be seven per cent for 365 days, seven per cent for 364 days, or seven per cent for 360 days, and there is no possibility of misconstruction; the day is a definite, uniform term of time, the month or year is not. Out of the indeterminate length of the month or year arises the only ambiguity of the present statute. The remedy is simple, and if the rate of 364 days were adopted, we could easily multiply the amount of the dollars of the principal by the days, and divide by 52 to obtain our results; or if the rate of 360 days were established, the formulas treated of in the December number of this Magazine would enable us to obtain our results with the greatest possible speed and accuracy. This latter rate has a preference over the other for its ready applicability to a variety of percentages.

The fourth method considers each day as the $\frac{1}{365}$ th part of the year, and is, we believe, the legal method, unless a computation by calendar months was intended by the words, “a month shall be considered as the twelfth part of a year.” This, however, can scarcely be deemed their intention, for immediately there follow as a qualification the words, “and as consisting of thirty days.” But we do not intend to discuss the interpretation of the law; our intention has been to point out the varieties of methods of estimate, and to show that the equitable may not be the legal method. We shall now proceed to our more immediate subject of Equations, and the equalization of terms of credit.

We have said that the average date of an account must be that date or time on which no balance of interest would be created; and unless the construction of the law be that each and every day is to be considered as the $\frac{1}{365}$ th part of the year, the usual method of average is manifestly illegal. We have most undeniably no right to average one account with another, if we either increase or diminish the interest on the items of that account when made up to a given time. The results of the estimate of interest on each item from its respective maturity on the one hand, and on the total amount from the mean maturity on the other, up to any given date, must correspond, or the process of average is erroneous. Now, if it be considered the intention of the law to compute interest by *calendar* months and days, and an account embraces a period of several calendar months, it is manifest that there may arise considerable discrepancy between the equitable and the legal average. We shall apply the formulas heretofore alluded to, for the purpose of ascertaining an average date both equitably and legally. Suppose it be required to average the following items of an account, viz:

	Dollars.		Int. 6 per cent.
January 1, . . .	520		
“ 5, . . .	363	4 days24
“ 10, . . .	427	9 “64
	<hr/>		<hr/>
	1810		.88—Carried forward.

Dollars.				Int. 6 per cent.	
Brought forward—1310				.88	
"	16,	. . 928	. 15 days	. 2.32	
"	19,	. . 623	. 18 "	. 1.87	
"	23,	. . 330	. 22 "	. 1.21	
"	25,	. . 262	. 24 "	. 1.05	
"	27,	. . 561	. 26 "	. 2.43	
"	28,	. . 986	. 27 "	. 4.44	
<u>\$5,000</u>				<u>17</u>	<u>14.20—Average 18th Jan.</u>

We have ascertained the number of days from the first date to each subsequent date, and computed the interest on the respective amounts; the total amount of interest is the amount which would accrue on the total amount of the account from the first date to the average date. The ordinary method is the multiplication of the respective sums by the days after the first date, and the subsequent division of the total of these products by the total amount of the account; the method we here adopt is in fact the multiplication of the respective sums by one *sixtieth* of the time, and a subsequent division by one sixtieth of the total amount; the result, it is apparent, must be the same in either case. And it may be observed, that an equitable average can be obtained by using aliquot or decimal parts, either of the sums or times, or both, as multipliers and divisors. The columns of days and amounts of interest may in general be inserted in the account-book in a narrow margin, by which the labor and danger of transcribing may be prevented; and the amounts of interest, when ascertained, may be set down immediately in the column appropriated to that purpose. The method here employed requires but from one eighth to one quarter the ordinary labor, its result is exact, and its liability to error is proportionably diminished. It must be obvious that the result of an average by the means of interest will be unaffected by the rate of interest, provided only that that rate be uniform.

It is usual to average the times of payment, and not the times of sales or the dates of the transactions, when the term of credit is uniform; the labor and time occupied in ascertaining the times of payment may be prevented, by an average of the times of sales or dates of entry, and our result materially accelerated.

Let it now be granted that the estimate of interest by calendar months and days is *legal*, and let us suppose a legal average of the following items of an account to be required, viz :

		Dollars.		Time.	Interest.	
March	10,	. 830				
"	26,	. 424	. 16 ds.	. 1.13		
April	4,	. 315	. 25 "	. 1.31		
"	20,	. 720	. 1mo. 10 "	. 4.80		
May	8,	. 536	. 1 " 28 "	. 5.18		
"	23,	. 912	. 2 " 13 "	. 11.10		
June	15,	. 648	. 3 " 5 "	. 10.26		
"	28,	. 137	. 3 " 18 "	. 2.47		
July	12,	. 796	. 4 " 2 "	. 16.18		
"	18,	. 478	. 4 " 8 "	. 10.20		
Aug.	10,	. 204	. 5 "	. 5.10		
		<u>6,000</u>	. 2 " 8 "	. 67.73	Average 18th May.	

We ascertain the interest by calendar months and days at 6 per cent, estimating the months as twelfth parts of the year, and days by the proportion they bear to thirty, and we find the *legal* average to be 18th May; the *equitable* average is one day later. It may here be suggested that in case an account contains many items and embraces a considerable extent of time, and the method of average above illustrated be adopted, we may compute the interest on the respective items for the number of the days of the month opposite to them, and add the interest by months on the whole amount included in each month: for instance;

Let us suppose the time on an amount due the first of a month to be five months and one day; (by taking the last day of the month preceding the date of the first item as the starting point, the excess of days will always be the days of the month,) then to each succeeding amount during that month the time would be five months and a number of days less than thirty; and the computation would be much simplified.

Required the interest of the following sums, viz:

									<i>Interest for days.</i>
Jan. 1,	420	dolls.	5	months	1	day	.	.	.07
" 3,	641	"	5	"	3	days	.	.	.32
" 8,	330	"	5	"	8	"	.	.	.44
" 12,	913	"	5	"	12	"	.	.	1.88
" 15,	624	"	5	"	15	"	.	.	1.56
" 18,	360	"	5	"	18	"	.	.	1.08
" 20,	180	"	5	"	20	"	.	.	.60
" 22,	450	"	5	"	22	"	.	.	1.65
" 24,	282	"	5	"	24	"	.	.	1.18

On 4,200 add 5 months 105.00

Total interest \$118.68

Instances like the above will often occur in an account of sales, and if the principle of estimate above applied, be adopted, it will be found that our calculations may be made with increased rapidity and probability of accuracy.

In cases where both sides of an account current are to be averaged, and the time of payment of the balance of the account without interest ascertained; we shall, by the use of the formulas for estimating interest, be enabled to solve the problem readily.

Suppose the debit of the account to be 3600 dollars, average due 10th Sept.—and the credit of the account to be 3000 dollars, average due 31st August—

When will the balance of 600 dollars be due?

The interest on the credit 3000 dollars to 10th September will be \$5.00 *credit*; and that amount will yield 50 days interest on the balance of the account, 600 dollars; so that the balance will be due 50 days after 10th September—viz, 30th October; i. e. the amounts 3000 dollars due 31st August, and 600 dollars due 30th October, will average 3600 dollars due 10th September.

Again: Suppose the debit of an account to be \$3600 due 31st August, and the credit to be 3000 due 10th Sept.

When will the balance of \$600 be due?

The interest or discount on 3000 dollars from 31st August will be \$5.00 *debit*; and, as before, that amount yields 50 days interest on the balance, 600 dollars; so that the balance will be due 50 days prior to 31st Aug.—viz, 12th July; i. e. the amounts 600 dollars due 12th July, and 3000 dollars due 10th September, will average 3600 dollars due 31st August. The debit and credit amounts may be transposed, and the problem solved by the same method. This, it will be seen, is the *equitable* solution.

Again: If we supposed a debit balance of interest made up to a specified time, and a debit, or credit balance of account, we can antedate or extend the payment as the case may demand; and the reverse supposition admits of as ready an adjustment.

In the case of a computation of interest *beyond* a given day, on both sides of an account, with a view to equate the payment, it must be evident that there exists no necessity of equating either side, because the balance of interest will extend the payment of the balance of the account beyond the given day, or antedate it, as it shall be found to be on the larger or smaller side of the account; i. e. adding to the smaller side of the account the balance of account, it must be so dated that, interest being computed beyond the given day, the amounts accruing upon the two sides will balance; or in other words, each side being equated, the day of payment would be the same.

These methods have a peculiar applicability to the equation of accounts of sales, and, because of their rapidity and exactness, deserve consideration.

We proceed then in the first place to equate the sales in the manner already illustrated; and, if the term of credit be uniform, we equate the *times of sales* instead of the times of maturity, thereby, at the very outset, saving ourselves no inconsiderable labor. We are aware that a *slight* objection may be urged to this method, and to those who urge it we have only to commend the old and more tedious process. The method we propose is exact enough for all practical purposes, especially if legal interest should be calculated by calendar months and days. Having obtained the mean time of sale, we easily ascertain the mean time of payment; and, were all charges upon the sales payable, as the charge of guarantee is, at the mean maturity of the sale, our labor would already be completed; but, we have now to adjust the charges so that the payment of the nett proceeds shall be legal or equitable. Usage, we believe, has established that neither the charge of guarantee nor that of commission shall be considered as earned or due till the maturity of the sales; and yet it is a custom with some, in discounting sales, to deduct discount on the *gross* sales from the *nett* proceeds; this method however is too manifestly unjust to receive any notice but the most unqualified censure and condemnation. In order to arrange the charges, let us make a statement of account, and it will be obvious that the methods before alluded to will afford the means of its immediate adjustment.

Suppose the gross sales to amount to 3050 dollars, and to be due by average 8th September; and the outlay for freight, drayage, labor, advertising, insurance, and all other cash expenses to be 50 dollars, and the average time of payment to be 1st January; and the charges for commission and guarantee to be 5 per cent.—i. e. \$152.50—the nett proceeds of the sales being \$2847 50:

This will be the statement of account :

A B in account with C D—	Cr.
By amount of gross sales due 8th Sept.	\$3050

To cash paid charges, averaging 1st January	\$50 00
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To commission and guarantee on sales due 8th Sept.	\$152 50
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If we omit in our statement those items which cancel each other, we shall have the following, viz :

A B in account with C D—	Cr.
By amount of gross sales, deducting commission and guarantee, due by average 8th Sept.	\$2897 50

To cash paid charges averaging 1st January	\$50 00
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Now, by the method given, estimating interest at 6 per cent on 50 dollars from 1st January to 8th September, (let us adopt the computation by months and days,) we have 8 months and 7 days interest on 50 dollars—say \$2.06, which we find equivalent to 4 days interest on \$2847 50; from which it is established that the nett proceeds should average due 12th September.

It may be remarked that the application of this principle will be found fully to repay the attention and consideration it may require; and we would repeat, that though we would not adopt a false method on the plea of expedition, we should steadily aim at an abridgment of labor, and the use of any means which, while they promote this object, do not compromise law or equity.

It will be seen that the process of equation we have illustrated is applicable only to sales having a uniform term of credit; but, there is a speedy method for the equalization of terms of credit, which will admit of its application to every variety of instance. There is, let it be allowed, a general term of credit—admitting this, we proceed to equate the *times of sales*, and in our process arrive at an amount of interest which would accrue on the gross sales after the first date to the time of average; from this amount, on the one hand, we deduct, on those amounts sold on *shorter* time than the general term of credit, interest for that difference in time; and to this amount, on the other hand, we add, on those amounts sold on *longer* time than the general term of credit, interest for that difference in time. The result it is evident is accurate, or nearly enough so to serve practical purposes. Suppose 1058 dollars of an account of sales to have been sold at six months credit, instead of eight months; (the credit of the rest of the account,) from the total of interest at 6 per cent, accruing from the date of the first sale to each subsequent date on the respective amounts, we deduct two months interest on 1058 dollars, or \$10.58, and proceed as before illustrated. If any portion of the account be sold on a longer term than the general term, interest is to be added; and indeed scarcely any delay is suffered, even by quite a variety of terms of credit in the same account.

In conclusion, we would suggest that the readiest examination of an equation is the estimate of interest by the formulas given in the December number of this Magazine, on amounts both prior and subsequent to the average date—the two totals of interest, if the equation be exact, will balance—and the formulas alluded to are applicable to *any* construction

of the law: and again we repeat, that we are not content, while we suppose ourselves in possession of useful knowledge, to retain it unshared with others; if it has been valuable to us, it may be to them also, and its usefulness to us is unaffected by its becoming common property.

ART. III.—FREE TRADE FAIRLY RECIPROCATED:

OR COUNTERVAILING PROTECTION TO OUR HOME INTERESTS.*

THE costly experiments in political economy and the disastrous effects of super-legislation, incidental to our free and theorizing republic, and perhaps necessary to its lusty and mature growth, are at this time strongly evidenced in our national concerns. The government and the people, each charging faults upon the other, find themselves confused and distressed, without much prospect, we fear, of a speedy improvement in their condition. But knowing the tenacity with which a youthful constitution clings to life when even despaired of by the most skilful physicians, we still have hope that all may yet be well, and that light will eventually burst upon us, the more glorious for the morning clouds which now obscure our ascendancy.

Every American who feels a proper solicitude for the welfare of his country, in the present trying crisis, may do something towards benefiting her condition, as well as his own. Is he a party-man?—He may give up his party as the good of the commonwealth requires it. Is he a northern man, or a southern, “from the Orient or the drooping West,” a farmer, planter, merchant, or manufacturer; is he dependent upon the labor of his own hands or those of others for his support, operating with his intellect, his skill, his capital, his industry or influence in any way?—Let him now come forth nobly and resign his selfish prejudices for the weal of the whole Union. Much may be done by concession; more, by confidence in one another. The reaction of excessive impulse in our national growth has now nearly destroyed the momentum necessary to our onward career. Confidence, concert, and a united effort will soon, however, dispel imaginary fears and remedy many of the actual evils that betide us. We have only to recollect that

“We are a world by ourselves and disdain a division;”

and then we need not fear, even if “the Philistines be upon us.”

Thus much is premised to prepare the way for a temperate discussion of the important subject placed at the head of this article, and upon which, until lately, there has been much difference of opinion among our ablest political writers. A late number of this journal contained an attempt, on

* The articles referred to in the discussion of this subject, are,

1st. Impolicy of Countervailing Duties, by Condy Raguet, Esq. in the *Merchants' Magazine*, Vol. 6, No. 1.

2d. Address of the Home League to the people of the United States.

3d. Speeches of the Honorable Messrs. Hudson and Winthrop, of Massachusetts, on referring the subject of the Tariff to the Committee on Manufactures.

the part of a once popular writer on free trade and finance, to prove the impolicy of countervailing duties. With all personal respect for the author we must be allowed to say, we think this the feeblest of his productions, and are therefore emboldened to attempt its refutation.

We shall not, in the onset, arm ourselves, as he does, with a scripture quotation from the First Book of Kings. We certainly do not "*hate him*," nor dislike *the truth*. But modesty bids us ask "what is truth?" Is it not our interest, as much as his, to seek it faithfully? And shall we not claim the same right to declare what we conscientiously and practically find it to be, as he does, however gifted he may be in the conviction of his own infallibility? Were he not a victim to the monomania of political economy *in the abstract*, we should, perhaps, feel ourselves bound to yield up our opinions to this venerable gentleman, announced as the president of the Chamber of Commerce of Philadelphia—one of those *learned philosophers* who denounce *practical men*, as *pretending* to understand what they teach, and who do not scruple to charge those who differ from them with "*ignorance and quackery*." But even the name of Condé Raguet, Esq., vaunted as the champion of free trade in this country, can no longer sanction such presumption, nor can his waning influence be restored, however lofty his position, or lucrative his talents.

We profess ourselves to be among the *practical* men who *think and work*, and not of that class of *philosophers* who are too impracticable to *work* as they *profess to think*. We respect *practical* economists more than *political*. We verily believe the delusive theory of free trade, *as contended for by our political writers on the subject*, has cost this country more than all the wars we have ever been engaged in. Perpetual motion was never more visionary.

These abstractionists, after ten years trial of a compromise between nullification on one side and protection to American interests on the other, are again in the field, marshalled under the bâton of philosophy, and armed with the cry of intolerance and persecution against the productive and commercial classes. A new adjustment of these conflicting opinions is soon to be made; and who is there that is not sick enough of wrangling discussions, long speeches, and vascillating legislation, not to wish that it may be judicious and lasting? If our future prosperity and peace be steadily desired, the subject ought to be now canvassed and settled, without threats from any quarter, and least of all from that party whose very existence is involved in the result of any compromise that may be made.

We deplore the compromising taint in our constitution; but it is inherent, and we fear must be hereditary. Our fathers had to make the best of it; so let their sons; and if antagonistic elements are mixed up in our national composition, so at war, that it requires all the wisdom, virtue, and patriotism of a united family to prevent the dreaded rupture which would be fatal to our Union, let us all aim at the high renown of so conducting, that centuries may yet elapse before our onward career will be arrested, and the invidious hopes of foreign despots be gratified.

The crisis in regard to the tariff which is now agitating the country, like every thing that affects the national purse, is one of no easy management. The discussions alluded to at the commencement of this article, and various others of great merit by practical and theoretic thinkers, render it unnecessary for us to enter largely into a statistical or financial examination of the subject. The leading topic we wish to discuss, is THE

UNION of free trade fairly reciprocated, with such a discriminating tariff as will faithfully and permanently protect our home interests, without disparaging any one branch of them, whether commercial, agricultural, planting, or manufacturing. As to the protection of our revenue, that seems to be conceded on all hands. The maintenance of a sound currency, too, if we are ever to have one, is involved in the question of *countervailing duties for the benefit of the whole country*, without any supposed sectional protection or preference of any part. This branch of protection, consequently, seems also to be conceded by those who object to any special favors to the mechanic or manufacturing classes. To resent aggression, is a more natural feeling in some sections of the country, than the encouragement of home industry, free labor, or even free trade. But duties, whether for revenue, countervailing, or protective, must in some way be levied; and what we now design to prove is that they will, in no way, militate with the principles of free trade as practised by any nation with which we have commercial intercourse.

By free trade, we mean FAIR TRADE; such as exists or should exist between independent nations; not that which is proffered by wily diplomatists, nor such as professors of political economy would have, if their Utopian schemes could be realized. We cannot go back to the days of Adam and Eve. The *knowledge of good and evil* was their choice, and is now our birthright. With this came *labor*, and whether labor is to be considered as a blessing or a curse, it is our inheritance and *must be protected*. For ourselves, we cherish it as a boon. It will not do to mourn over it as a curse. To the freeman, it is not so. To those, alas! to whom knowledge of moral and mental good is denied, and only ill is given, existence even may be a doubtful blessing; but even *servile property* must be *protected*, or our free constitution is violated.

The protection of American labor, therefore, and the promotion of reciprocal commerce, is the starting point in our discussion. We are indebted for this creed to the Home League, formed in New York by a convention of citizens from all parts of the country, without sectional distinction and above party bias; and what American is there that does not respond to its principles? Is it asserted that this creed contains a declaration contradictory and impracticable? Those who would so have it, may make it so to seem; but, fairly considered, we cannot perceive that there is, or can be, any thing antagonistic between a fair, free trade with all the world, and a due protection to our home industry. The perpetual mistake made by the philosophers in political economy is, that there is such a thing as free trade practised between nations, where an exchange of equivalents is given and taken honestly. There is none, and can be none. The selfish, cunning nature of man is incapable of such a commerce. A confederacy of all the sovereigns of the earth could not maintain it. If formed, it would be only a rope of sand—a smoke wreath, which the first breath of conflicting wind would dissipate. Those who profess its adoption, chuckle at their success when they find others duped by it. Russia, once caught in the toils of English sophistry in this way, bitterly bewailed her error, soon abandoned it, and confessed to the world her folly. We Americans have also played the same selfish game, when we have *condescended* to make *treaties* with the poor Indians. *Talk, and free trade*, have robbed them of their homes. A few miserable trinkets were the equivalents for which these *unprotected* savages have bartered away their con-

continent. England's practical free trade goes to a still greater length in her boasted Indian empire. Let her conquests there not be mentioned, nor her vassal population, but is she not now forcing free trade on the defenceless Chinese, bribing them with smuggled opium, and nullifying the temperance edict of the Celestial Emperor? Who is not heart-sick at such abominable impositions?

But we come now to analyze the theory, that free trade is opposed to the protection of our home interests, and to deny the impolicy of countervailing duties. Our readers need not be apprehensive that we shall launch into a dry discussion of the tariff. We are neither inclined nor prepared to handle that perplexing subject. It is one of no easy adjustment. But our political relations with foreign countries, the war in disguise, which is now carried on against our commerce, as well as manufactures and agriculture, and *the preparations for annihilating our planting interests*, are subjects of much graver import.

No commerce nor trade between nations is entitled to be termed free, unless prosecuted upon principles of reciprocal benefit. Any nation that will tolerate the exclusion of its products, or such prohibitory duties levied on them as will exceed the amount levied on the goods of the same country in exchange, ceases to be independent and actually becomes tributary. Had international trade been commenced and carried on upon the exchange of strictly reciprocal equivalents, or could it be so carried on, a possibility which, having never yet occurred, we are at liberty to deny, then protective duties to be reciprocal would have to be strictly equal everywhere. But now we must take things as we find them. A young country like ours cannot of course afford to set the example of keeping open house as it were, when all those we traffic with charge us for our intercourse with them. Such liberality we should deem rather transcendental; and yet, if we understand the theorists of Mr. Raguet's school, to this extent they invite us to lead off in the dance of free trade. That protection of their own interests which we accord to others, shall we not imitate in regard to ourselves? Are tobacco, rice, flour, provisions, and almost every thing we produce, to be enormously taxed by foreign governments, and all that we manufacture excluded from interference with those establishments, whilst we throw our ports open for the free admission of what they produce? Is the servile and pauper labor of foreign countries, and the aggrandizement of moneyed monopolies abroad, dearer to us than the protection of our own national independence and home industry? Every free American must revolt at such vassalage.

We define free trade then as it exists, to be no other than a commerce between nations, more or less protective, according to existing treaties, and that we therefore have an undoubted right to protect our own concerns without violating any of its principles; and it is equally our interest and *honor* so to protect them. The liberties now taken by England alone in undermining our commerce by her colonial policy, in contravening our agricultural, manufacturing, and financial prosperity, by prohibitory restrictions on our exports, and overwhelming this country with imports, poured upon us at any sacrifice, and without reckoning the cost of the ammunition, so long as it is effective, is as much a direct declaration of hostility, and as ruinous an attack on our independence, as the capturing our vessels, or the battering down of our cities. Tamely to submit to this, out of compliment to the infallible professors of free trade, is worse than re-

turning to provincial bondage. A fair free trade or none, is our motto; and if fair, we have proved that it cannot be opposed to the protection of our home interests. We do not say that if England or any other foreign governments should take off all the protective duties with which success has been secured to them, by which their establishments have been built up and their capital accumulated at the expense of reducing the wages of labor, that we should at once repeal all our duties for protection and revenue, and throw open our ports for the admission of all goods free. This we know would not be fair, nor any thing like a reciprocity of equivalents, and therefore could not be termed free trade. Give us the same advantages, and we need not fear competition with any nation. But not to be cajoled into any one-sided bargain by a trick of abstract diplomacy is one of the inherent rights of reciprocal commerce, and to this let us adhere in practice as well as in argument. One of the labors of Hercules consisted in strangling the snakes that infested his cradle, and it will be well for us to bear in mind, that if our young republic is to possess a giant's life, it must be sustained by gigantic efforts.

Having now, as we trust, proved satisfactorily that there is nothing incongruous in the union of a judicious protection to our home interests, and a fair free trade or reciprocal commerce with foreign countries, and that the former is absolutely essential to the preservation of the latter, we shall next endeavor to show conclusively the right and policy of countervailing duties, whenever any government violates the true principles on which free trade can alone be prosecuted. Self-defence, it will be admitted, is as much the right of nations as of individuals. Selfishness is the motive principle with all; and however Christian or laudable it may be to feed our enemies, and to do good to those who spitefully use us, we do not believe that the wise founder of our religion ever intended to sanction a perpetual invasion of our rights, or the abandonment of our essential privileges. What but the enjoyment of these inalienable attributes of sovereignty at first induced the glorious founders of our republic to sever the galling bonds of colonial vassalage, and afterward to unite in a confederacy, where free trade and a perfectly unobstructed intercourse were solemnly guaranteed to all its members? No compact like this is, *or ever can be*, established with foreign states. We shall never know the value of our own favored country in this respect, until we assert and maintain its true dignity, and cherish our domestic advantages. Among ourselves commerce can, and ought to be, unshackled, and must necessarily be reciprocally beneficial. The good of the whole must conserve the good of every part, and it is idle for any section of the country to clamor for *free trade with all the world*, when its proffered blessings among ourselves are considered unworthy of encouragement.

But to recur to Mr. Raguet's essay: we there see it stated that "if ninety-nine out of a hundred nations adopt the restrictive system, it is the true policy of the remaining one to adhere to the principles of *free trade*." That is to say, the principles of *free trade* demand that we should export nothing, if other nations choose to restrict us, and import every thing they choose to send us, duty free. Are our farmers, planters, and manufacturers prepared to welcome such a free trade? Let us see how a theory, the correctness of which he is so confident of, that if he fails in proving it true, he offers to burn all the books on political economy, is attempted to be substantiated. He instances the trade existing between the United

States and Buenos Ayres. These countries, 7000 miles apart, and of course subject to a heavy expense in trafficking with each other, carry on a commerce in flour and hides, which each could produce, but find it advantageous to barter. Mr. Raguet may be mistaken in saying that cattle are *cultivated* in Buenos Ayres; we think they are caught wild for the sake of their hides, horns, &c. Labor, therefore, is not much concerned in the prosecution or loss of this trade, but this does not affect our argument much. We admit the case cited as a fair illustration of the usual intercourse between commercial nations, an exchange of equivalents, and we take Mr. Raguet's estimates and positions as correct: viz, 300,000 hides exchanged by Buenos Ayres for 100,000 barrels of American flour. The former we will value at \$2.00 cost, and \$1.00 profit of trade, freight, &c.; and the flour at \$6.00 per barrel, and \$3.00 do.—being 50 per cent on the cost at the place of export. We wish also to suppose each country to possess a moneyed capital of say a million of dollars each, to provide for any balance of trade.

Now to make out a clear case of free trade, or an exchange of equivalents, between these two countries, no notice should be taken of their intercourse or traffic with other countries. We wish them to represent the whole commerce of the world, and let us try fairly and considerately the bearings which the anti-protective, and the countervailing or true free trade policy will have, *in fact*, divested of any inferential or speculative *laws*, as they are designated in the theoretical political economy. We will try for once to make our learned friends of this school stand to their position, and not to fly off in a tangent through the vast regions of fancy, where it would be as hard to follow them as it would be one of Herschell's comets at the extremity of its aphelion.

Free trade then, between the flour-exporting United States and the hide-producing country of Buenos Ayres, is commenced without any duty on either side, and is assumed to be sufficiently beneficial to both nations, although each could produce the product of the other, to maintain a third interest, which we shall call *the carrying trade*, equally participated in by both.

The traffic between them consists in the exchange of—

100,000 barrels of flour from the United States,	
valued at \$6.00 per barrel	\$600,000
Expenses of freight, interest, insurance, and	
profits of trade	300,000
	————— \$900,000
300,000 hides from Buenos Ayres, at \$2.00	\$600,000
Expenses, &c., as above	300,000
	————— \$900,000

with a specie capital in each country to regulate any balance of trade equal to a million of dollars.

This we shall designate fair free trade, to which no one can object. Thus far we agree.

Our author next assumes that Buenos Ayres imposes a duty of 20 per cent on the American flour. Very well. This may be invidious, or a matter of necessity or internal policy. In either case it disturbs the equilibrium of reciprocity, and should be resisted. The United States levy a countervailing duty on the hides of an equal amount. Is the trade less free? Do the relative prices or equivalent returns vary in any respect? Is

either nation poorer or richer for the enhanced value of its imports? Each government collects a revenue, estimated at 20 per cent, which at the place of importation makes—

On the flour, worth before \$900,000

Say 180,000

———— equal to \$1,080,000

and on the hides, worth before \$900,000

Duty 20 per cent, 180,000

———— equal to \$1,080,000

The prices to the consumers, or exporters, are advanced accordingly, each faring alike. Is not this trade still free?

But high prices, says Mr. Raguét, reduce consumption and amount of imports, and consequently of exports. This depends on the manner the duties are disposed of, and other circumstances. If taxes had to be paid before by the consumers in specie, equal in amount to the 20 per cent now levied on the goods, and should they be taken off, and the expenses of the country be paid by this revenue, consumption would still go on without loss to the consumers or to the government.

Again: if the duty be levied and disbursed among the people for improvements by which they would be gainers in their trades or estates, such as railroads, canals, machinery, and other useful arts, the benefit of which would be equivalent to the 20 per cent advance on the articles consumed, would any loss ultimately accrue to either country? But on the contrary would there not be a permanent gain after the first cost was reimbursed? If cattle in Buenos Ayres could be caught and marketed cheaper by means of the outlay of \$180,000 duty, and flour could be ground and transported cheaper in the same proportion in the United States, would not prices ultimately fall, the quantity be largely increased by these new facilities, and trade be likely to be carried on, perhaps more extensively, and as free as before?

But if, on the contrary, the amount of the duty levied, in addition to former burdens, should be squandered in useless projects, lost in unprofitable wars, or thrown away in disgraceful tribute to foreign and rapacious rivals, then the suffering country would have to feel the new tax imposed; reduced consumption of imports, and consequent decreased exchange of exports, or a diminution of the profits of trade would have to follow. Should like circumstances, however, take place in both countries, the relative exchanges and traffic, though reduced, would be equal and free as between themselves, though in contrast with their former situation, or with other nations, they would each be relatively poorer. Every new levy of imposts thus wasted, would make them still poorer, until finally ruin or a revolution would ensue.

But should one country only be exposed to these wasteful exactions, and the other have its revenues judiciously appropriated, then a wide difference would soon be manifest in their relative condition. The provident would soon consume or abandon the improvident, after despoiling her of her money reserved for a balance of trade; and being able to produce what she had formerly imported, as well as exported, by a wise distribution and protection of labor, she would eventually become rich and independent. Her foreign carrying trade might be diminished, but her domestic exchanges and intercourse would increase. She would at least have some trade, which, if she imported every thing, say all the hides, reduced ultimately

to nothing by Mr. Raguet's supposed foolish imposts, and exported nothing for nothing, she would indeed be bankrupted in every thing.

But there is still another view of the case. It is admitted, by our opponent, that Buenos Ayres levies the first duty on our trade, an injury to us as well as to her, but he insists we should only make it greater by resenting it. How is this? Between individuals, is not any attempt at overreaching without an equivalent a fraud in law? And should we not consider it a contemptible policy in any nation tamely to submit to the first insult on her honor, whether by fraud or force. The champion of free trade, however, is for taking it philosophically, and turns both cheeks to be smitten under the plea of benefiting ourselves by the folly of our adversary. We doubt if such an abstraction is of American origin. It appeared not in our Declaration of Independence, and forms no part of our free Constitution.

If Buenos Ayres has the right of imposing a restriction, we have a like right; and honor as well as interest bids us retaliate. If she resolves to destroy her exporters of hides to raise a revenue, or to build up flour-mills, our farmers should be protected in the raising of cattle to supply the diminution of the flour business. It is idle to stand still and have duty after duty levied on our declining trade, and bounty after bounty bestowed by foreign governments, to supersede us in the production of our agricultural and manufacturing staples, as has been the case with indigo, and may soon be with cotton, and for us to still keep our ports open for the free admission of these articles out of courtesy to any country.

But there is still another fallacy in Mr. Raguet's argument, that we must now make appear. He asserts that duties imposed by us in retaliation, are a dead burden upon the people; whether 20, 40, or 100 per cent, only aggravates the evil inflicted on us by foreign imposts. Is this so? What becomes of the revenue, we would ask? Is it collected in specie only to be thrown away? Or is it used for the necessary support of government, the maintenance of a navy for the protection of commerce, and of our army to secure peace within our borders? Is not the expenditure for the public offices and post-roads, for the establishment of internal improvements, widening the sphere of support to our laborers and artisans, of some advantage to the nation—and are not these vast blessings paid for by the revenue? It is not true that nothing is to be gained by a countervailing policy but the "cutting off of our own fingers," as Mr. Raguet politely assumes. Nations are not all independent of the necessities and luxuries we have to part with, and people are not such idiots, as he supposes, to stand still and do without them, if we resist their anti-reciprocal encroachments. A tax on tea, indomitably resisted by a handful of freemen, convulsed the world in its consequences. It gave birth to the true principles of free trade; the only kind, indeed, that a free and honorable nation can encourage. The "let alone and take what we can get" policy, advocated by Mr. Raguet and his southern friends, is not American in any shape false philosophy may place it.

Protection to all the interests of the country includes free trade. They are, and of right ought to be, inseparable. We are not pledged to the manufacturers merely, nor can we tolerate any system that is not national and reciprocal. Our agriculturists, first and foremost, free as the soil they cultivate, must be protected. A foreign market, if possible, but at all events a home one, must be secured for them. Our planting producers must not be interfered with, we will not say *protected*, for that is not permitted by them as constitutional. But to our mechanics, laborers, artists,

and manufacturers, no doubtful or temporary protection must be given. Let them thrive, and then commerce, cherished daughter of all other pursuits, will thrive with them.

What then shall prevent the union and advancement of all these co-relative interests? Happy are we if we would only know and preserve our own privileges! But we are too free and too visionary to act in harmony, and have been lamentably unfortunate of late years in putting our faith in princes of high pretensions and broken fortunes, who have all but ruined our self-respect. Let our working, thinking men, rouse then to the rescue.

The world is getting skeptical concerning the efficacy of governments of any sort in bringing about human perfectability. Our own "last found and ever new delight" already exhibits symptoms of fallibility, and people begin to find out that they may depend too much on being governed by fixed laws in perpetually changing circumstances. Legislation, and too much of it, plods on behind the age, whilst speculation hurries us away ahead of it. Implicit faith, therefore, can neither be placed in constituted forms nor in fallible theories, constantly demanding "a change of times and states." Much depends upon coincidences that no human sagacity can predict or avert. There is scarcely a nation to which wealth, power, and glory have not occasionally been given, or the same taken away, unexpectedly. Whether in monarchies the most absolute, or republics where scarcely a phantom of law exists to guide them, the mass of the people have appeared to be the playthings of chance, rather than the architects of their own fortunes. Still, how many there are among us who profess to understand exactly how to set every thing at rights, and to govern the world precisely as it ought to be governed!

Among these, political economists take the lead. One gives us, "The Wealth of Nations;" another, "A Sound Currency;" a third, "Free Trade with all the world;" a fourth, "The impolicy of countervailing duties;"—and such wise conceits have been so often put forth to gratify a heated fancy, and gather homage from the ignorant, that the due respect which is usually granted to wisdom, learning, and virtue, among men, is now no longer cheerfully accorded to philosophy, found fallible. Success obtains the crown of merit, and time and chance happen to all. But it is time for us Americans to learn, that even success is not always to be obtained by the aid of princes or philosophers—nor by the people who worship them, or are worshipped by them. Humbler pretensions on all sides, with a steady aim at human improvement, should be inculcated. The world will go on probably as of yore, and we shall find that there will ever be a mixture of good and evil in all things; that the selfish principle in man is not yet matured; that the millennium will not dawn until all the Jews are called home; nor until these things are accomplished can a universal free trade be established, nor the hopes of Christians and philosophers be consummated. Under these conditions, therefore, the governing principle best adapted to our nature, and likely to be most successful with that nation that follows it, is a prudent confidence, under Providence, in our own moral exertions, steady industry and economy, increasing knowledge and virtue, and respect for such laws and rulers as will faithfully protect those who yield obedience to, in order to be protected by, them.

Those who contend against this order of things in our country, are probably not aware of the mischiefs they produce among us. Their imprac-

ticable theories have already led us into a thousand foolish experiments, and almost to a dissolution of the Union. Under the plea that trade governs the world, they are perpetually seeking to array one section of the country against another; the merchant against the manufacturer, and the producers against the consumers, as if we were not naturally bound together in one common interest. They do not, or pretend not, to see that the laws of trade are fluctuating and conventional, and subject to the control of wise legislation or arbitrary despotism. To submit to them, therefore, *in all cases*, may neither be wise nor politic. Who is there that will now contend that the *slave trade* was ever just, or that the British orders in council, and the French decrees, which excluded our commerce with every port from Bayonne to Libau, ought ever to have been tolerated? Who is there that now sees any advantage in impoverishing and demoralizing our country with a flood of champagne, or the costly silks and gewgaws of France; or the excessive imports of articles which we can make ourselves, from England, merely to encourage commerce, or benefit an unreciprocated trade, falsely called free? Or who is there, except Mr. Raguet and his infatuated adherents, who will say it is for the advantage of two countries like Buenos Ayres and the United States, both capable of producing wheat and hides for their own use, to exchange these articles with each other, merely to maintain a carrying trade of seven thousand miles, when the whole expense of freight and charges could be saved by supplying their wants at home? What prudent father would beggar his son by preventing his learning every useful trade necessary for his support, or desert him when just entering into business, a victim to an overreaching, jealous rival? Or what paternal government will refuse to patronise the useful arts, and to foster the manufacturing establishments necessary to its security and independence? And yet there are those who constantly decry such a policy to be absurd, because "trade governs the world." Why! Is not England, our greatest rival, doing precisely as we should do, now? Has not this always been her policy? Let those who think otherwise study the following account of her meditated overthrow of our cotton trade. Not merely the south, but our whole country is interested in its consequences. There are those among us who are jealous of the forced industry of our cheap state-prison convicts, as an interference with the labor of honest American mechanics. Will they be content to foster the cheaper labor of their Bombay rivals?

THE EAST INDIA COTTON TRADE.

The New Orleans Advertiser, of recent date, contains extracts from a letter written from Bombay, to a gentleman in New Orleans. The writer had resided in Hindoostan for fifteen years. He gives it as his opinion, that in less than five years the India product will supplant American cotton in the English markets.

Nothing but the unsettled state of many districts, the high rates of transportation, the rude mode of culture and of separating the seed from the wool, and the rapacity and extortion of the East India Company, have prevented a competition long since. But now, it is added, the absolute submission of the hostile and rebellious rajahs, the decline of the opium trade, the war with China, and the introduction of the saw-gin, have brought about a new state of things, and every district in the country is now engaged in the culture of cotton.

The shipments of cotton from India to England for the current year, are estimated at 450,000 bales: it is believed that during the next season at least 600,000 bales will be shipped.

To these facts, the writer adds other items which are worthy of notice:

"The government at home has left no stone unturned to free Great Britain from dependence on you for the raw material. The use of the saw-gin in two years time will be universal. Orders have been sent to the United States for a supply of the best Mississippi. Labor is low—from three to six cents a day. The average product per acre is 200 pounds of clean cotton. Our cane-brakes and low lands, as with you, yield immensely, while the hilly districts do quite as well as those in Mississippi. Even now, where the saw-gin is used, cotton is delivered in this city (Bombay) at two cents a pound.

"The substratum of our soil varies. It is either granite or volcanic, according to the position, and though we may not be able to produce as good a staple as you can, yet I am sure we shall soon be able to drive out of the English market all your low priced cottons.

"Even in Sea Island cottons we are making headway. They are indigenous to Ceylon and the Coromandel coast.

"Your planters must look to the cultivation of the better qualities, if they would keep the East India cottons out of the European markets. As to the English markets, they will not have them long, for the home government has it in contemplation to *lay a heavy duty on American cottons.*"

To this statement the Baltimore American adds:

"The advocates of free importations at the south will, in all probability, have an opportunity very speedily of enjoying the blessings of that sort of 'free trade' which the other portions of the Union have been made to experience. The price of cotton is already affected by the introduction of the India article into the British market. When the Government of Great Britain shall '*lay a heavy duty on American cotton,*' will it be unconstitutional then to insist upon reciprocity of trade? Will countervailing duties be impolitic, or a tariff oppressive?

"We alluded some days ago to the history of the *Indigo* culture in Hindoostan. The results of that undertaking speak in a language too plain for misconception. If it is proper for this government to take any steps in view of the present designs of Great Britain in India, the time has surely arrived for doing something. It is, however, for the South to judge, in so far as their staple constitutes the basis of our national interest. The middle, western, and eastern States, whose interests have been already affected by the restrictive policy of England and other European nations, are preparing to move. It would be better for all if a harmonious and concerted system of action could be agreed upon, which, while it embraced every interest, should bear oppressively upon none."

In addition to the above, we quote the following extract from a recent report to the British parliament, showing the intended appropriation of British capital, and a system of bounties in order to encourage the culture of cotton in India, and secure a supply of that necessary staple for their domestic use, without being dependent on foreign nations for it,—a hint to our growers of the article to encourage manufacturers at home to use up what the planting interest cannot export when superseded by their India competitors. A home demand from numerous customers is more secure than any foreign one from a large monopolizing rival, whose custom depends upon caprice, or an uncertain continuation of peace.

[From the Boston Atlas.]

EVIDENCE RESPECTING THE EAST INDIA COTTON TRADE.

"The minutes made by Lord Auckland, the Governor General, on this subject, contains the plans which he wishes to have adopted, and the information which gave rise to them.

"1st. That there be an alteration in the rate and mode of taxing cotton lands: the rate being erroneously supposed to be a maximum one, and the amount often taken in kind, thereby inducing the grower to produce quantity or weight, without regard to quality or cleanliness.

"2d. That encouragement, or reasonable inducement, be afforded to the influx of capital,—and to its application to this particular cultivation. A special mode of encouragement is indicated in the offer of a fitting bounty, either by reducing the assessment on the lands on which foreign cotton seed is grown, or by stimulating industry by large grants or prizes.

"3d. That experimental farms be instituted, and rewards given, for improved produce, or for improved machines for cleaning cotton—this last being the great desideratum, especially as regards the cotton of Bombay. Seeds to also be procured of the best foreign cottons, and distributed.

"4th. That the transport of produce be facilitated by the formation of roads, and its preservation and shipment by the erection of warehouses at the ports of shipment."

We will give one further illustration of the value of foreign friendly feeling towards American interests. Governor Cass, our envoy in France, in a late report to the government, states, "that two thirds of all the importations into the United States from France were duty free. *Not one* article imported into France from the United States is exempt from duty. Cotton pays a duty there of between *four and five per cent on its value more than Egyptian*, thus far operating as a bounty in favor of the latter."

Do our cotton growers see no mischief in this preference for the foreign cultivators of their staple, or must a narrow jealousy of their brethren at home, who are their natural customers, forever blind them against perceiving the invidious policy of others?

We will suppose now that in five years, England not only supplies herself with cotton, but our other customers for the article are supplied by her, or from some other cheap-labor countries. Will the south then subscribe to the "impolicy of protective duties," or consent to be the one Nation, shut out by the restrictive policy of the ninety-nine? Or will she then consent to see her best interests preserved by encouraging domestic consumption? Will she not then discover that there is no natural hostility, but a reciprocal amity between the interests of the northern manufacturers and the southern producers; that they are all, in short, producers, capitalists, traders, and fellow-laborers? Will she not then admit the unity of one consecutive and conservative operation between the laborers in every department of the product raised—First, the *sower of the seed* and *planter* with his hoe; next, the *mechanic* who gins the cotton from the pod; then the *trader* who buys and transports it to the market where it is manufactured, and from the *manufacturer* back again to the *producer*, or to other consumers who furnish in return the articles of luxury or necessity which he wants? Is not all this a confederate and desirable union of interests, worthy of liberal protection? Will commerce be the sufferer? We have the experience of the past to assure us that if the home market for manufactures is secure from foreign interference and domestic monop-

oly, competition will cheapen prices low enough for export. We well remember the cry of oppression raised by the Salem merchants, in 1816, that if the tariff was then increased ruin would seize their India trade. Then northern merchants, now many of them manufacturers, were the opponents of protection, and the southern planters, alas! still planters, its advocates! What has been the result so far as commerce has been concerned? Then what was the cost of *one* cargo of cotton cloth *from* India, would now produce *four* of better quality sent *to* India! *Four freights* for *one* is the balance in favor of our commerce, and the fabric produced at home is had at one fourth of the cost to the exporter and consumer! And this is not all. Specie was required to fit out every Indiaman enough to build one cotton-mill then, and four cotton-mills, of the same size, now! We are stating facts that we know, and defy a denial of them. But to make them more apparent, we repeat, that such has been the wonderful skill and enterprise of our machinists, iron founders, and handicraftsmen, that the machinery for a cotton factory, complete, which in 1820 cost over forty-eight dollars per spindle, now costs less than twelve dollars! Is it wonderful that we should be the exporters of the article, or that Russia, Germany, and even England should send to us orders for steam frigates and engines? Is it wonderful that our countrymen should prefer to be machinists and manufacturers under a government that knows how to prize them, rather than to turn all farmers and carriers, the hewers of wood and drawers of water, for other nations? Do our citizens generally know the fact that the relative ratio of agricultural and artisan labor in all countries is as 12a36, showing an advantage in favor of the latter of 200 per cent? No wonder that Great Britain was able to cope with all the world, and is able to arm and govern so great a part of it with the small army of machinists she possesses. It is not *her cheap labor at home* the world has to fear, but her vast overgrown capital and skill, which may set in motion *her cheaper vassal labor abroad*, and which, if permitted, will crush the rising enterprise of other countries. Of this, and not any superiority in her enterprise or skill, have we Americans much now to be afraid. But if a steady judicious tariff, of a wisely discriminating and strictly protective character be adopted, on the true principles of encouraging a fair reciprocal trade with all the world, and of securing a salutary protection to our home industry and skill, so that American labor shall not be interfered with in our home markets, by the monopolizing and jealous capitalists of Europe, nor be depressed by labor of a pauper or servile character, then our country need not fear but her high destiny will be accomplished.

But it is time now to bring this article to a close, even without some statistical references which we had intended to offer. They may appear in a future number. We have only a few words to say in parting to our esteemed friends, whom Mr. Raguet says, are "reviled individuals, whose views are thought to have no practical bearing, and whose opinions belong to the closet, and not to the counting-house or workshop." We shall not apologize for our presumption in differing with them. Whether from obtuse vision in ourselves or an excess of light in them, we take a widely different view of things. We think and feel that we are right; they are as sure that we are not. Let our readers decide. We shall not insist on Mr. Raguet's burning all his books, if he is convinced of his error, as he offered to do, but we can heartily join him in wishing to propagate truth, without boasting or reproach. Theory without practice, or practice with-

out theory, have no right to be intolerant. He has the advantage of a distinguished name. We rely solely on the merit of our cause ; but confess ourselves deeply interested in the success of the Home League, with which we have been associated from its commencement, and which we have the pleasure to see is now widely extending itself throughout the country, particularly at the south and west. With political economy in the abstract, we do not boast of much acquaintance, and have but little time or inclination to put forth in writing our opinions, although we have had some practical experience in its results. We have designed, however, in this essay, to express fully our real sentiments, without fear or reward, and to contend for principles which we believe salutary *for the country—THE WHOLE COUNTRY*. Let others, if they please, favor foreign dogmas, foreign philosophy, or foreign fabrics. We deplore the fashionable tendency to lean towards every thing cis-Atlantic, particularly if it be extravagant. A *false free trade* is one of these costly notions ; but our citizens begin to suspect they have had enough of it. They will soon perceive there is no use in pulling each other to pieces for the sake of building up our foreign rivals ; but abandoning this heathenish propensity of running after strange gods, they will unite in promoting a *true constitutional free trade among themselves*. Then the south, no longer jealous of the north, shall see her own interest best advanced by encouraging the productions of American skill and industry, and will actually find them cheaper by all the saving of freight, than they could now be imported, duty free, from abroad ; and the north and the east, uniting cordially in sustaining the south and the west in all their constitutional privileges, will be blended together with them in a genuine love of our common country ; when all will unite in maintaining our glorious banner, undisturbed by “base revolting stars” consenting to our self-destruction ; and we shall all understand that our true prosperity consists in a fraternal and patriotic interest, “UNUM ET COMMUNE PERICULUM, UNA SALUS OMNIBUS.”

ART. IV.—MERCHANTS AND MERCANTILE LAW.

It was related of the late Chief Justice Parsons of Massachusetts, that while he was at the bar and engaged in very extensive and lucrative practice, an eminent merchant invited him to dine with him under circumstances a little unexpected. At the dinner-table the merchant took some pains to draw the conversation out upon some legal questions, and having a case of great importance and delicacy of his own, concerning which he was anxious to get the opinion of Mr. Parsons, (without paying him the customary fee,) he supposed a case precisely parallel to his own—stating all the particulars with minuteness ; and to close with, said to his guest, Now what course would it be prudent for a person to adopt under such circumstances ? “Consult a lawyer by all means,” answered Mr. Parsons.

Who shall say this was not a very just and valuable answer ? In all legal points arising in business of serious importance and difficulty, it is certainly judicious to consult our legal adviser, and to do it before a fatal step is taken, or liabilities are ignorantly incurred.

But there is a large amount of legal knowledge daily required in the

transactions of the merchant, and which should make a part of his business information and education. This consists in understanding the great leading principles which govern sales, agency, negotiable paper, suretyship, and the like. The mere man of business need not be learned in all the minute distinctions and doubtful points: these belong to the learning of the legal profession, who can and will give the time and research necessary to a proper understanding of them. The amount of legal knowledge necessary to be understood as a part of business education, embraces, generally speaking, the leading, well-settled and well-defined principles of every-day application. Hitherto no suitable manuals of familiarly written, yet authoritatively correct mercantile law, have been prepared for the merchant. Hence he has been under a sort of necessity of having his legal adviser to apply to for every point however easily understood, but about which, from the importance of results, he is unwilling to act under a shadow of doubt.

The advantages connected with a merchant's position and information, for understanding legal principles and applying them correctly to mercantile questions, is not often duly appreciated by themselves.

In order to understand a principle of law and its application to the business affairs of men, it is not enough that we have read the legal treatises and decisions on the subject. An acquaintance with business transactions, arising from observation and experience, are also necessary. And this observation and experience the merchant possesses in relation to his own line of trade, far better than the legal profession generally. Not intending to disparage the intelligence of the legal profession, yet it is certainly too much to expect of those who have the largest share of general business information, that they can be as well informed as merchants about the commodities they respectively deal in, or the usages of trade applicable to them. Hence, when a merchant consults his legal adviser, he often has to commence by instructing him largely about his business before his counsel can turn about and inform him in relation to the legal principles applicable to his case. Hence too, and for this reason among others, merchants select their lawyer, and repose confidence in him and give him instructions about their business; and when he gets so as to understand it, they are loth to part with him. They rely on him to do up their legal thinking. He is to them like the old family physician, who from having long attended in the family, understands their constitutions and all their chronic diseases and idiosyncrasies.

But, after all, would it not be better for merchants to give the subject of mercantile law, at an early period of life, that degree of *serious* attention which they are taught to bestow on the practical part of their profession? It would, as a mental discipline, tend much to induce to accurate habits of thinking, and open up to mercantile pursuits a new and rich field of mental occupation. While the details of business give scope to the faculties of observation, the legal principles would give exercise to deep reflection and comprehensiveness of thought.

We hardly need say that by these remarks we do not recommend that every man should become his own lawyer. More, far more, is embraced in *that* expression than people unacquainted with legal jurisprudence in its voluminous details are aware of. But we *would* be understood as recommending that every one, who seeks to be regarded as a well-informed and intelligent citizen and merchant, should have so much acquaintance with law as, all must concede, belongs to a general and a business education.

From the success which has attended this journal, and the prevailing eagerness of merchants to read on subjects connected with their profession, we mistake much if these views will not meet a cordial response from those whom we address. They are no hasty opinions taken up by ourselves recently, and for the purpose of shaping an article. But we began some eight or nine years since to prepare a work, which should do something to supply the want. Circumstances, and not inclination, have delayed its completion until the present time.* And having treated somewhat at large of contracts generally, and sales in particular, as also negotiable paper, we have, at the request of the editor of this Magazine, prepared the remarks which follow on sales. They may tend to illustrate the views put forth in this introduction.

LAW OF SALES.

The contract of sale is one of immense interest to the whole community. In a moral point of view it involves many nice questions which have often been discussed by writers on ethics. But when we reflect that buying and selling is one of the three great interests of all civilized countries—that the business of the other two interests is managed extensively through its instrumentality, and that all classes are largely buyers for their daily necessities, comforts, and luxuries, the subject rises to its just dimensions. It is indeed, as we have elsewhere said, by trade that the life-blood of a business community circulates, and its great emporium is the heart of the system. Its importance has greatly increased within the last fifty years, and its progress is co-extensive with the spread of civilization, the improvements in mechanical skill, the extension of the facilities of intercourse, division of labor, and the general advancement of the race in knowledge, taste, morals, and religion.

The contract of *sale* is based upon the existence of a common measure of value or circulating medium. Hence when a sale is effected it is for a *price* agreed in money. Though less primitive than a direct exchange of one commodity for another, it is as ancient as the invention of money. One of the earliest sales we read of is recorded in Genesis, in the case of the transfer of the field of Machpelah, for the price of four hundred shekels of silver, "*current money with the merchant.*"—Gen. chap. 23. The difference in amount and importance of sales is such that we might as well compare the structure of a polypus to that of a man, as the purchase of the whistle by young Franklin to that of Louisiana by Mr. Jefferson. In generalizing our remarks, we obviously neither intend those of the one extreme or the other; but those multiplied and daily business transactions which are the result of the wants of the whole community.

Trade being the direct occupation of one large class of the community, it is carried forward for gain. Yet good faith is essential to a transaction requiring mutual engagements and reciprocal acts. And often something better than simply cold calculating gain by driving a hard bargain, takes place between buyer and seller. There often grows out of a course of trade a high and honorable confidence between a trader and his customers. And it is this which lends the brightest coloring to the mercantile pro-

* More than four years of this time were exclusively devoted to a field of labor in this city, connected with one of its public institutions dear to the affections of us all.—Ed.

fession. It is this which at once morally elevates the merchant above the trickish, petty chapman, and imparts to him the dignity which belongs to those professions where the confidence of the community necessarily so largely reposes. There is something higher than mere considerations of gain in the daily operations of the merchant of thirty or forty years' standing, still at stated periods supplying more or less of the customers whose acquaintance he formed in his youth.

The law of sales has grown most rapidly within a few years past, and the modern decisions merely digested, would make a volume of no small size. The elementary treatises compiled for the profession are numerous. Among the best of these we may mention Long on Sales, (Rand's edition;) Pothier, elegantly translated by the learned and accomplished editor of the Jurist; Ross on Purchasers and Venders; Brown on Sales, and Hiliard on Sales. In the 2d volume of Kent's Com. on American Law, there is a very long title in which the various learning on the subject is elaborately collected. Among all these there are none prepared for the practical business man. We shall in this article allude to two leading considerations only, as indicating to the business man the method in which the subject may be presented.

Perhaps there is no principle of law applicable to the contract of sales of more importance to be rightly understood than that which is indicated by the familiar Latin cautionary phrase, *caveat emptor*—Take care, purchaser.

The principle when fully expressed, with all its limitations and qualifications, is as follows:

"If there be no warranty, and the goods be present to the parties, and no fraudulent representations be made by the vender, the purchaser will have no remedy after executing the contract, if the goods turn out to be of a bad quality, unsound, or of a different kind and denomination from what they were thought to be by the parties." This is the common law rule, and differs from the rule of the civil law. At times the courts in this country and in England have been induced, from the special circumstances of some particular cases, to relax the rule. But the recent decisions have fully restored the old doctrine. And they have done so mainly from the extreme difficulty of framing any other that can be applied successfully to practice. This rule is calculated to insure caution, vigilance, and deliberation on the part of purchasers, and it avoids the temptation to subsequent litigation, when circumstances and feelings have changed, and the purchase is less advantageous than was anticipated—an occurrence which not unfrequently happens. The doctrine above stated was laid down in the celebrated case of *Seixas vs. Wood*, 2 Cains, 48, and it has never been questioned, though the soundness of its application to that case has often been canvassed.

Let us examine the limitations to the rule.

1. There must be no warranty.
2. The goods must be present to be inspected by the purchaser, and if connected with other goods, they must be designated or laid out.
3. There must be no fraudulent representations made by the vender.
4. The contract must be executed.

In the first place, if the purchaser have any doubt of his own judgment, if he cannot spend time to make full inspection, if the nature of the article be such that there is intrinsic difficulty in determining as to its quality or

kind—in any of these cases it is very easy to insist upon a warranty. A warranty is a contract, the nature of which is to guard the purchaser and protect him from possible mistake or misapprehension, and to quiet his fears.

2. If the goods be where there is no moral possibility of examining them, as when they have not arrived at the wharf, or are in hold, or at some distant place, in these cases the vender must represent the kind, quality, and soundness of the goods truly, or else he will be responsible. The purchaser reposes confidence from necessity, and if upon actual subsequent inspection they do not answer the description, they may be rejected, or taken at a fair deduction of price. If the purchaser go into the store of the seller, and order goods without laying them out, in this case there is a confidence placed, and the seller must furnish merchantable goods of the kind ordered.

3. If the seller in his representations states what he knows to be false, and uses any fraudulent practices to check inspection, this will vacate the contract. The law abhors fraud, and whatever it enters into will be vitiated by it.

4. Again: the rule applies only to executed contracts; that is, to contracts of sale where the title has passed and possession has changed, so that the goods may not be returned.

The case of *Seixas vs. Wood*, decided in 1804, in New York, was certainly a hard one. The sale was of valuable wood called *Brazilletto*, and the article delivered was *peachum* wood, of little value. It had been advertised as *Brazilletto*. The invoice shown to the plaintiff called it so; and it was called so in the bill of parcels. Yet there being neither express warranty nor fraud, the sale was held to be good. The plaintiff's agent who examined it did not discover that it was not *Brazilletto*, nor did the defendant know it was not the article described, until he had occasion to use it. The only ground on which this decision has been complained of, was, that the article being described as *Brazilletto* in the bill of parcels, it ought to be regarded as an implied warranty that it was that kind of article. The article was different in kind. But in fact the article which the purchaser received was the same that was inspected at the sale; and the great point is, that when the purchaser makes inspection of the thing, he is bound by the result. There was no deceit, for the seller was under the same mistake. And where there is inspection, and no deceit or warranty, and the transaction is completed, the purchaser must pocket his loss, and look out better next time.

In a recent case of *Hart vs. Wright*, 17 Wendell, Judge Cowan very ably reviews all the cases, and among others recognises the case of *Seixas vs. Wood*, and says he thinks of no exception except that in case of the sale of food for mankind. In that case there is a warranty that the article is fit to be eaten. Therefore, if a man should, without warranty, sell tainted meat, measled pork, or poisoned cheese, though he did not know in either case it was so, and though the purchaser should examine it, and not discover it was so, he would be liable. This rests upon principles distinct from those which govern ordinary sales—viz, those of public policy.

Another case founded also on principles of public policy may be mentioned. It is where the parties stand in a *peculiar and confidential relation to each other*: as for instance, the relation of client and attorney, physician

and patient, principal and agent, principal and surety, guardian and ward, trustee and *cestui que trust*, partners and part owners. In any of the above cases, if there be any misapprehension of any material or essential facts, or any just suspicion of artifice or undue influence, it will be fatal to the validity of the transaction. The policy of law on this point is but the echo of enlightened moral sentiment. And when in times like these, scarcely a week passes but some glaring case of breach of confidence of some kind occurs, it is time for courts and moralists to speak out. The rule in this case is not confined to the seller, but applies equally to the buyer. And, "wherever there is the relation of employer and agent existing in situations in which of necessity much confidence must be placed by the employer in the agent, then the case arises for watchfulness on the part of the court, that confidence shall not be abused." *Dent vs. Bennett*, 7 Simons.

We have as much as said already, that where there was a mere contract to sell, or a sale of an indeterminate thing, the rule *caveat emptor* did not apply.

The cases embraced under this head, are—

1. Where goods of a certain description are ordered, and not laid out and selected by the purchaser.

2. Where a thing is contracted for and is not manufactured, but is engaged to be manufactured.

3. Where articles are ordered for a particular purpose—as where a man orders a garment for himself.

4. So if one send his child or servant with an order for goods.

In each of these cases there is confidence reposed in the seller, and no examination of the article by the purchaser. In all these cases there is a chance to reject the article as soon as it comes to hand and is inspected; and the vender is bound to furnish a merchantable article—and in the case of its being ordered for a particular purpose, it may be rejected if it do not answer. The rule of the civil law *caveat venditor* applies. The seller must look out to supply an article which will answer. Thus if a purchaser apply personally for an article for any particular use, the vender is bound either to supply one fitted to the purpose, or to decline the application. If one apply for a carriage horse, or one fit to carry a lady or a timid and feeble rider, the seller who knows the quality of his horses, is bound to select one suitable for these purposes. And if he recommend one as suitable, he is bound by his recommendation. See Long on Sales. But in regard to horses, it is now the universal practice to require a warranty, either general or qualified.

But there is another branch of the rule *caveat venditor* well understood by the trading community, which we may be excused in alluding to, mainly upon moral considerations. It applies to cases where the purchaser has important knowledge affecting the price or value of the commodity, and of which he knows the seller to be ignorant. In the case of *Fox vs. Mackrith*, Lord Thurlow stated the opinion, that "in negotiating for an estate, the purchaser would not be bound to disclose to the seller his knowledge of the existence of a mine on the land, of which he knew the seller was ignorant. If the estate was purchased for a price of which the mine formed no ingredient, he held that a court of equity could not set aside the sale, because there was no fraud in the case; and the rule of nice honor must not be drawn so strictly as to affect the general transac-

tions of mankind." Upon this the learned commentator upon American law remarks, that the laws are not so perfect as the dictates of conscience; and the sphere of morality is more enlarged than the limits of civil jurisdiction.

If, however, a word be dropped during the negotiation calculated to mislead the vender, it will make a case of artifice and fraud, against which the courts will relieve. This was the view taken by the court in *Turner vs. Harvy*. Pothier remarks, in conformity with the general doctrine, that though misrepresentation or fraud will invalidate the contract of sale, the mere concealment of material knowledge, which the one party has touching the things sold, and which the other does not possess, may affect the conscience, but will not destroy the contract, for that would unduly restrict the freedom of commerce; and parties must at their own risk inform themselves of the value of the commodity they deal in. The language used here would apply to the seller as well as the buyer. But in the this must, as it regards him, be taken with limitation. For it was decided sale of a ship which had a latent defect, known to the seller, and which the buyer could not, by any attention, possibly discover, the seller was held to be bound to disclose it, and the concealment was justly considered to be a breach of honesty and good faith. So in another case it was stated that if a man sells wine, knowing it to be corrupt, an action of deceit lies against him, though there be no warranty.

In both the above cases the defects were not open to inspection. Had they been, the law would not require the vender to aid and assist the observation of the vendee. Buyers must not go to sellers to take lessons in the science of observation. They will prove too dear teachers.

But a case occurred soon after the late war, in New Orleans, which illustrates how far a man may, in purchasing, avail himself of the earlier and superior information he may possess. It was the case of *Laidlaw vs. Organ*, eventually decided in the Supreme Court of the United States, in February, 1817; and is notorious from its having given rise to a treatise on the doctrine of contracts, by Gulian C. Verplanck. The facts as they appear on the record transmitted from the district court of Louisiana district to the supreme court, were as follows: In the night of the 18th of February, 1815, three persons brought to New Orleans, from the British fleet, the news of the signing of the treaty of peace at Ghent. Mr. White, one of these persons, published this news in a handbill on the next morning, being Sunday; and it was made public by 8 o'clock on the morning of that day. This news was communicated on Sunday morning, by one of the three gentlemen who brought it, to Mr. Organ, the plaintiff in the suit below, and purchaser of the tobacco in question. Mr. Organ called on Francis Gerault, a partner in the firm of Laidlaw & Co., soon after sunrise on Sunday morning, before F. G. had heard the news. F. G. asked him if there was any news which was calculated to enhance the price or value of the article about to be purchased? The *buyer was silent*. The purchase was made—the bill of parcels delivered between 8 and 9 o'clock—and the article immediately rose from thirty to fifty per cent. The next day Francis Gerault was applied to for an invoice of the tobacco, when he made no objection to the sale, but promised to deliver the invoice in the course of the day. It also appeared that the parties had been bargaining for this tobacco the preceding evening.

Now, bating the fact that this took place on Sunday morning, a thing of which the seller had no reason to complain, for he was equally a Sabbath-breaker; I say, bating this fact, I think the feeling of every intelligent merchant would be, that Mr. Organ was justified in closing the bargain as he did. And after all, he ran some risk, for the news might have turned out to be a *hoax*. It seems that the defendant's own moral sense did not, when called on to complete the transaction, suggest to him that he had been wronged; he thought it an ordinary chance of trade which had turned against him. So thought the court. Hear what the court saith:

"The question in this case is, whether the intelligence of extrinsic circumstances which might influence the price of the commodity, and which was exclusively in the knowledge of the vendee, ought to have been communicated by him to the vendor? The court is of opinion that he was not bound to communicate it. It would be difficult to circumscribe the contrary doctrine within proper limits, where the means of intelligence are accessible to both parties. *But at the same time each party must take care not to say or do any thing tending to impose upon the other.*"

ART. V.—TOBACCO TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE tobacco plant, which is a native of our country, and early consumed by the Indians, was, it is generally known, first carried to England in 1584, by Sir Walter Raleigh. As it soon came to be an important commercial staple, it was made the subject not only of royal proclamation, but repeated acts of parliament. In 1622, the annual import of tobacco into England from the United States, for the ten previous years, was 142,085 pounds. In 1624 it became a royal monopoly, and for the purpose of encouraging its growth in our American colonies, its cultivation was prohibited in England. As early as 1615,* the fields, gardens, streets, and public squares of Jamestown, in Virginia,† were planted with tobacco; which was used as a currency in that as well as many other of the southern states, and during our colonial dependence it formed a prominent staple of export to the parent country; the yearly exports of tobacco from America for the ten years preceding 1709, averaging about 28,858,666 pounds, of which 11,260,659 pounds were annually consumed in Great Britain, and 17,598,007 pounds in the countries of Europe. In 1747, and the ten previous years, there were annually exported to England from the American colonies 40,000,000 pounds of tobacco, 7,000,000 of which was consumed in England. The annual revenue was about 4,500,000. In 1775 the annual export of tobacco from the United States

* In 1620, ninety young women were sent over from England to America, and sold to the planters for tobacco, at one hundred and twenty pounds each. The price at first was one hundred pounds, which gradually increased to one hundred and fifty pounds.

† In 1669 the crimes of adultery and fornication were punished in Virginia by a fine of from 500 to 1,000 pounds of tobacco.

Which, at 1,200 pounds per hogshead, would		
be	hhd. 113,900	
2. I estimate the growth of Cuba at	lbs. 10,764,000	
Porto Rico at	3,700,000	
South America at	3,000,000	
	<hr/>	
	lbs. 17,464,000	
Equal, at 1,200 lbs. to the hhd., to 14,553 hhds. of		
which the greatest proportion is probably sent to		
Europe, say	hhd. 12,000	
	<hr/>	125,900

Making the possible consumption of American tobacco in
Europe 844,688

"But, taking into consideration the want of means among the population of many of the countries of Europe to purchase our tobacco, I will suppose that the probable consumption of American tobacco in Europe would be only about one half of the above mentioned quantity, say 422,344 hhds.; this would be more than four times our actual exportations to the various countries of Europe, and would require at least 300,000 tons of extra shipping to carry it to market, and would increase the pecuniary means of our country more than twenty millions of dollars annually, adding an increased value to the state and other stocks of our country in foreign markets, and greatly augmenting the revenues of our government by affording us the means of greater importations, and consequently a low tariff, if the revenue should be found to be more than sufficient for the economical wants of our government.

"The annual average importations into the United States from the various countries of Europe, from 1st of October, 1835, to 30th September, 1838, amounted to \$97,251,339; of which \$42,653,867, equal to 44 per cent on the total average importations, were admitted free of duty; and, as the average exportations of our domestic produce of all kinds to the same countries of Europe, during the same period amounted to \$79,201,860, it will be seen that we have admitted, free of duty from Europe, an amount of its produce more than equal to one half of the exports of our domestic produce to the same countries.

"The average amount imported into the United States from Europe, during the above mentioned period, which was subject to duty, was \$54,597,477; and as the total average amount of revenue obtained by the American government, for the two years ending 31st December, 1838, by the importations from *all parts* of the world, was \$16,866,017, it may safely be estimated that, as a large proportion of the articles coming from Europe were admitted free of duty, the revenue which the United States has derived from the importations from Europe has not exceeded ten millions of dollars annually; so that if this revenue should be equalized on the total average importations from Europe, say \$97,251,334, it would only amount to a duty of about 10 per cent, whilst Europe is obtaining a revenue of at least thirty-five millions of dollars from 86,396 hhds. of our tobacco, costing, in the United States, \$6,450,820.

"Fellow-citizens, is this the reciprocity, is this the evenhanded justice, we have a right to look for, and to expect from foreign countries, whose industry, whose prosperity, and, it may also be said, whose tranquillity

depend upon our great and annually increasing markets for the sale of their produce?

"Let me, therefore, respectfully recommend to you to be firm in your determination, and united in your efforts, to obtain justice, and you will certainly succeed in every country of Europe in obtaining a diminution of the high duties, and the abolishing of the shameful monopolies which exist on your industry."

W. G. Lyford, Esq., the editor of the Baltimore Commercial Journal, has republished in his valuable paper the foregoing address of Mr. Dodge, which he conceives to be essentially at variance with the official statements of the secretary of the treasury, transmitted to congress, under date of March 2, 1841, and other data with which he has been furnished by commercial friends, corroborative of the ground he takes in opposition to Mr. Dodge's report. We quote from the Journal the remarks of Mr. Lyford on this subject:

"The annual imports of tobacco into Russia, Mr. Dodge puts down at 358 hhds. The imports have been on an average annually of 2000 hhds., besides 1000 hhds. of Stems. Holland must consume much more than 3300 hhds. Last year 22000 hhds. were imported, of which, probably more than one half was consumed in the country. France has imported about 15000 hhds. per annum; in 1840, about 16000 hhds. The importation into Spain must be underrated. Austria may be a little overrated. The statement that the duty there amounts to \$850 per hhd. is entirely erroneous; and the revenue of \$3,400,000 includes no doubt the profits on inland tobacco sold by the *regie*. The estimates of the quantity grown in Europe are equally incorrect. The cultivation in France is nearly abandoned, and cannot be any thing near 26,000,000 lbs. The estimate for Germany and Austria is too low. Hungary alone has produced in one year 60,000,000 lbs.

"A dear article never takes the place of a cheap one. The tobacco raised in Russia, Holland, Germany, Austria, Poland, &c., though mostly of inferior quality, is cheaper than American tobacco would be, if imported there free of duty; and the consumption in these countries could not be much increased.

"The estimate of the production of Cuba, the West Indies, and South America, is much underrated. Porto Rico has exported to Germany alone 60,000,000 lbs. in a single year; and other important islands are lost sight of altogether. St. Domingo, for instance, raises large quantities of tobacco, of which upwards of 20,000 bales were exported last year to Germany.

"The consumption of the United States is probably much overrated, say about *one half*, and comparatively a small portion is consumed by smokers—by far the bulk is manufactured into 'chewing tobacco.' Of the growth of Maryland and Ohio, which is not fit for that purpose, only about 1,000 hhds. are annually consumed in the United States; and taking this as the basis, which the consumption in Europe ought to be, the actual exports show an excess of *two thirds*. The Europeans might possibly be induced to consume more by *smoking* or *snuffing*, but they would protest against an extensive introduction of *chewing*.

"The interest of the tobacco growers in the United States might, probably, have been better represented, had Mr. Dodge attended the European markets, noticed the samples as presented, and the condition of the tobacco

when uncased, and advised owners and planters of the facts which exist to their prejudice, as set forth in a letter received by a commercial house in this city, of which an extract follows. We truly regret that a cause existed for such a letter ; but our dealers should profit by it, and an investigation take place where it properly belongs."

" BREMEN, Dec. 28, 1841.

" We shall hardly be able to effect any further sales by your samples ; as, much to our regret, we have convinced ourselves that several lots have turned out much inferior when re-drawn here, and we shall have to make some allowance in order to satisfy our customers. There is a difference of 1 or 2 grots per lb. in several hhds. of ——'s mark ; and among mark ——, there are 10 hhds. which are on an average 2 grots per lb. inferior, and hardly resemble your samples. We are very sorry at such occurrences, as it must prejudice our buyers against these sales by American samples, which, under other circumstances, were very desirable on account of the saving in expenses."

ART. VI.—THE MEASUREMENT OF SHIPS FOR TONNAGE.

At the time our present rule of measurement for the tonnage of ships was adopted, it undoubtedly gave a near result to their actual capacity ; all vessels at that time being modelled more alike—shorter, wider, and of less depth than they now are. But as it at present exists it is full of error, and is unfair and unequal in its application. It is as follows :

" Length on deck from the forepart of the stem to the after part of the stern post ; width outside at the broadest part above the mainwales ; depth from the under side of the upper deck to the ceiling of the hold. Then from the length subtract three fifths of the width—this sum multiply by the width and depth, and divide the product by 95 : the quotient gives the register tonnage of a single-decked vessel. But if the vessel be double-decked, half the breadth of beam is to be taken as the depth of the hold, (its real depth not being measured,) and the same process as before gives the tonnage."

Under this rule it will be seen that the same vessel may measure more as single than as doubled decked, that a "kettle bottom" will carry three times as many barrels to a ton as a "Baltimore clipper:" and that in fact the registered tonnage of a vessel without other knowledge is no guide to her capacity.

As most shipping charges depend on the tonnage, a temptation has existed to build vessels of a form unsuited for sailing or working, ungainly in appearance, and unsafe as seaboats, in order to obtain the greatest amount of capacity with the least of measurement ; and thus evading a part of duties and expenses in our own as in foreign ports, as well as rendering the introduction of improvements in the models of our ships slow and difficult. Since our tonnage duties were taken off, and the English and other foreign nations have adopted measurements differing from ours, the cases are not so strong, but still the reasons exist. Yet fortunately for the credit of our country, the experience and good sense of many of our shipowners, especially in the city of New York, have taught them that to sacrifice

every thing to the carrying qualities of a ship is bad economy—that extra ballast, obtained, trimmed, and got rid of with much labor and cost, also costs extra power of men, sails, and rigging to sail it; that a deep full ship goes only on her side, will not carry sail when necessary, sails dull and steers badly, is unsafe to run before the wind, and cannot be depended on to ware or stay in emergency; while on such vessels the underwriters are most frequently called upon to make up loss and damage.

The measurement of the cubic contents of a ship's hold is a complicated and difficult problem; at best but an approximate result can be obtained by any rule which could be generally applied; it is highly desirable that some system should be adopted, simple and uniform in its operation, not likely to be misunderstood or misapplied, and which should give an answer near enough to be a sufficient guide to the carpenter, merchant, and sailor in the construction, freighting, and management of a ship, whatever her form may be.

The present English rule seems to answer this requisition, its accuracy has been tested by complicated mathematical calculations, and the results have proved that it gives the comparative capacity of all ships, however built, with tolerable accuracy. There appears no good reason why we should not adopt it just as it stands. Our law was taken from their old one; its only merit is its simplicity, and even this is affected by the provision in favor of double-decked vessels. The English have changed this law because it has proved bad; nor is it likely that the aid of the best mathematicians has been wanting to make the new one as correct and simple as possible.

Extract from the statute 5 and 6 William IV. cap. 56:—"Divide the length of the upper deck between after part of stem and forepart of stern post into six equal parts; measure the *depths* at the foremost, at the middle, and at the aftermost of these points of division, in feet and decimal parts of a foot, from the under side of the upper deck to the ceiling at the limber strake; (in case of a break in the upper deck, the depths are to be measured from a line stretched in continuation of the upper deck.) Divide each of these three depths into five equal parts, and measure the inside *breadths* at the following points, viz: at one fifth and at four fifths from the upper deck of the foremost and aftermost depths, and at two fifths and at four fifths from the upper deck of the midship depth; at half the midship depth measure the *length* from the afterpart of the stem to the forepart of the stern post.

"Then to twice the midship depth add the foremost and the aftermost depths for the sum of the depths: add together the upper and lower breadths at the foremost division, three times the upper and the lower at the midship division, and the upper and twice the lower at the aftermost division, for the sum of the breadths.

"Multiply the sum of the depths by the sum of the breadths, this product by the length, and divide the final product by 3500: the quotient will be the number of tons for register.

"If the vessel have a poop or half deck or a break in the upper deck, measure the inside mean length, breadth, and height of such part thereof as may be included within the bulkheads; multiply these three measurements together and divide the product by 92.4: the quotient will be the number of tons to be added to the result first found.

"In steam-vessels, after applying the same rule, the tonnage due to the

cubical contents of the engine room is deducted from the result, determined as follows, viz: measure the inside length of the engine room in feet and decimals from the foremost to the aftermost bulkhead; multiply the said length by the depth at the midship division as aforesaid, and this product by the inside width at the same division at two fifths of the depth from the deck taken as aforesaid; divide the last product by 92.4; and the quotient shall be deemed the tonnage due to the cubical contents of the engine room.

"For ascertaining the tonnage (temporarily) when laden, measure length on upper deck as before; inside breadth on under side of upper deck at middle point of length; depth from under side of upper deck down the pump-well to the skin: multiply these three measurements together and divide the product by 130; the quotient gives the tonnage.

"The various dimensions are set forth in the register, and the tonnage carved on the main beam in figures at least three inches in length," &c.

In Holland the dimensions of all vessels are taken in eight or ten different places, and the burden calculated on the same principles.

In order to illustrate the foregoing remarks, the following descriptions of vessels have been selected as examples, their various dimensions having been ascertained by models and drawings, and in some cases from actual measurement.

First, A New York modelled ship, calculated for a southern packet, with large accommodations for passengers on deck, of light draft of water, requiring but little ballast, and combining all other good qualities as far as our improvements have gone. Dimensions: Length on deck 106 feet 6 inches; width of beam 26 feet 4 inches; and depth of hold 15 feet.

Depth at foremost division 15.8 feet.

Do. midship 15

Do. after 15.2

Width at one-fifth from deck, forward . . 22.4

Do. four-fifths do. do. . . 14.5

Do. at one-fifth, aft 22.4

Do. at four-fifths, aft 12.4

Do. at two-fifths, midship 23.6

Do. at four-fifths, do. . . . 20.7

Length at half midship depth 103

(Sum of the depths $61 \times$ sum of the breadths $175.6 \times$ length $103 \div 3500 = 315.22$)—measuring as double-decked 330 tons, or as single-decked 377 tons, (having partner beams, but not a full deck below, which has often caused questions,) by the foregoing rule will measure 315 tons without poop deck, which would add thirty or forty more, will actually stow 3600 barrels of flour under deck, which is equal to 11 barrels to the ton, government measure, or 11.6 to the ton by the rule.

Second, A vessel of the class known as "high-decked," flat bottom and shallow hold, and stiff with many kinds of cargo without ballast. Length 91 feet; breadth 24 feet 4 inches; depth 11 feet 4 inches—gives government tonnage 221; by the English rule 182 tons—will carry 2100 barrels—equal to 9.5 per ton government, or 11.5 by the rule.

Third, A sharp-built "Baltimore clipper," of the class well known as the fastest sailers in the world. In such vessels, the stern and especially the stern-post, rake very much—the dead rise is five or six inches to the foot; the deck oval-shaped, wide amidships and narrow at the stern, and

draught of water two or three feet more aft than forward. Say length 91 feet; breadth 26 feet; depth 13 feet. Government measure 268 tons, while the foregoing rule gives but 161. Stows 1750 barrels, which is $6\frac{1}{2}$ to the ton, government, or 11 by the rule.

Fourth, The antipode to the last: a ship of the kind such as were built several years since, mostly at our eastern ports, for the freighting business, called "kettle-bottoms." They were calculated expressly to "cheat the tonnage" as much as possible, but fortunately are in bad repute and fast going out of fashion. Of great length in proportion to the width—beam measuring several feet more below water than at the deck, and preserving the same width very far forward and aft. Stem very little, and stern no rake. Floor long and flat, without dead rising; very full bows and stern, and very deep hold. Say length 120 feet; breadth 25 feet, (28 feet 6 inches below water;) depth 21 feet. Gives government measure 335 tons—by the rule 568 tons. Such a vessel would probably stow 6500 barrels or more, equal to 19.5 barrels to the ton, government, or three times as many as the clipper; while by the foregoing rule her rate would be 11.6 barrels to the ton.

It needs but to call attention to this subject to demonstrate the unequal bearing of the present rule. It is evident that by substituting a better mode, the improvements in shipbuilding, which are so hard to introduce, will become general, and a new impulse given to invention, while it is conceived that no interests can be injuriously affected by the change.

ART. VII.—RUSSIAN LAW OF CO-PARTNERY IN TRADE.

FROM the explanation of the regulations about guilds, in the *Merchants' Magazine* for January, 1842, it appeared that every merchant carrying on trade in Russia, whether a Russian subject or a foreign guest, must belong to a guild, and be possessed of a proper license, by which his privileges, immunities, and obligations are determined. The substance of the laws regulating matters of co-partnery and the responsibility of merchants trading in partnership, is as follows:—

1. Parents with their children, trading in one firm, are considered natural partners, with one joint capital, and require only one license, in which the parent and his children are named, paying only one single annual rate; the father, or if he be dead the mother, being responsible with the whole property of the family that shares the concern, and is accordingly amenable to law. Brothers, trading in one firm, with a joint capital, also require one license only, with payment of a single rate, and are jointly responsible and amenable to law.

2. Merchants' widows, but not merchants' daughters, are allowed to carry on trade in their own names. Sons of merchants, not separated from their fathers' or mothers' concerns, nor trading on licenses of their own, are not allowed to contract debts, or enter into liabilities by signing bills, contracts or bonds, except by special full powers from their parents, registered by local authorities; nor can they contract private debts in their own names, without the consent of their parents.

3. A merchant's wife's property, unless she be declared her husband's partner in trade with that property, is not responsible for the debts and liabilities of her husband, and it cannot be touched by creditors no more than that of children separated from their parents' concern, whether they be in trade or not. A father is, however, for himself, entitled to take away and dispose of the property of his son, although the latter be trading for himself; the father being for life considered the natural guardian of his son's conduct and property. These regulations refer both to Russian subjects and foreign guests.

4. When there is co-partnery between any two or more merchants, not related to one another in the first degree, each, though they be trading jointly, must be provided with, and pay the full rate of, a license for himself, provided he be a full partner of the concern; but the possession of a license is not required of a mere shareholder or "sleeping partner," who confines himself to the contribution of a certain capital on condition of having a share in the profits; but foreign guests have to sign a declaration that they have no secret partners *residing in Russia*. The Russian law thus distinguishes two capacities of partnership, namely—1st, full partnership; and 2d, partnership in trust, or mere shareholding. Merchants only, that is to say holders of licenses, can be full partners, while individuals of any rank or class of society may be shareholders in a company, with or without licenses of their own; the partnership in trust being embodied in the full partnerships.

5. A full co-partnery, composed of two or more individual merchants, agreeing by contract to carry on business together, under a firm, in which their names are joined, is called a commercial house. It must be founded on a regular contract, registered by a public notary, containing the terms and the endurance of terms agreed upon, and such contract enjoys validity equal to that of promulgated laws relative to the reciprocal obligations of the contracting parties among themselves, as well as their responsibility towards the public. The agreements of foreign guests between themselves and their friends at home, are not required to be registered in Russia, such individuals having barely to procure licenses and to sign declarations that they have no secret partners residing in Russia.

6. The declared full partners of a commercial house are responsible "in soli'dum," to the extent of the whole of their moveable and immoveable property and profits, for all debts, obligations, and liabilities contracted by the concern. The full co-partner of one commercial house is not, at the same time, allowed to be the full co-partner of another, although he may be a shareholder in other concerns, as an investment of property belonging to him.

7. A commercial house or full co-partnery cannot be opened, nor have legal commercial existence without having been regularly announced to the public by circular letters, and by a corresponding declaration made thereof at the town-house where the parties are resident; such declaration setting forth the nature of the co-partnership, whether full, or in trust from shareholders, or both; who the responsible partners are, by their christened and surnames; the amount of capital contributed by each, and the signature and seals of such full partners as are intrusted with the management of the business and the representation of the firm; together with the amount of capital derived from shareholders in trust, if any. It is not re-

quired that the latter be named in said declaration, they being comprised in the addition of "and company" to the firm.

8. The town-house reports to the ministry of finances on every establishment formed, with such particulars, as the declaration made, sets forth, as well as to the customhouse and commercial court.

9. The shareholders in trust of a co-partnery are only responsible to the public for the debts of the house, to the extent of the capital contributed by them, consequently they cannot reclaim it, or appear as creditors for it, if the firm become insolvent, nor withdraw the capital contributed before the expiration of the contract, or some time therein stipulated. Money, lent at mere interest, does not constitute a shareholder, and qualifies a mere creditor of the concern. Shareholders in trust, unless they be declared managers by full power from the responsible partners, or their firm, cannot, as mere shareholders in trust, transact business, or contract liabilities with anybody in the name, and for account of the firm.

10. The law also admits of joint-stock companies, under an anonymous firm, composed of a number of shareholders, one or more of them becoming permanent or elective managers of the establishment, without being subject to the regulations concerning full co-partners; but managing the concern according to the provisions of the contract, chartered to such company by government, and published in official papers at full length.

11. The number of such joint-stock companies is now very considerable in Russia and increasing continually. The principal establishments of this kind are—the Fire Insurance, Life Insurance, Steam Navigation, Gas-lighting, Cotton Spinning, American Trading, Railroad, Water Conducting, etc., Companies at St. Petersburg; the Maritime Insurance Company at Odessa; the Silk Raising, Sheep Raising, Asiatic Trading, Linen and Hemp Manufacturing, Beet Root Sugar Refining, Havana Sugar Refining, Steam Navigation, and other companies in different parts of the empire.

12. There is also a regular system of granting patents for new inventions, and the introduction into the country of inventions patented in other countries.

ART. VIII.—MORALS OF TRADE.

NUMBER FOUR.

THERE are mooted questions relating to trade, some of which we propose, in the course of these papers, to discuss. Among these none is more worthy of consideration than, *whether one who has failed in business, and afterward reinstated himself in point of property and credit, is bound by the laws of honor to pay his old debts*; debts from which he received a discharge by giving up all his property—of course he is free from any legal liability.

We take the position, for the sake of the argument, that he is *not* under any obligation to pay these old debts. And in order to reach the right of this question, we must examine the mutual relations of buyer and seller, of borrower and lender. A purchases goods of B, or borrows money of him, for which he gives his note payable in six months. A has often obtained and fulfilled such credit, and B is glad to sell to him or lend him money

3d. That he has removed his property out of the territory for the purpose of defrauding his creditors.

When the defendant is arrested under the writ of *capias ad respondendum*, he must either give bail in the penal sum of double the amount sworn to be due, with two sureties, at least, each of whom shall make affidavit that he is worth the amount stated in the bond over and above all his debts, or he must be committed to prison for the want of such bail. He can, however, be discharged from custody upon application to a judge of the district court, supreme court commissioner, or justice of the peace, and giving notice of such application to the person at whose suit the arrest was made, and rendering a schedule of all property, money, and effects within the territory, and delivering the property over to the proper officer to satisfy the plaintiff or plaintiffs, or a sufficient amount to satisfy the debt, and taking and subscribing an oath that such schedule is correct.

A suit is commenced by *declaration*, by filing in the office of the clerk of the proper county a declaration, entering a rule in the minutes kept by such clerk, requiring the defendant to plead to such declaration within twenty days after service of a copy of such declaration and notice of such rule, and serving a copy of such declaration and notice of such rule personally on the defendant, which service may be made by the attorney of record, or by any officer competent to serve process in the district courts of the territory. Whenever a suit is commenced by declaration, such declaration is considered the first process in the cause.

An *attachment* suit may be commenced in the territory when any creditor, his agent, or attorney, shall make oath in writing before any proper officer, that his debtor has absconded, as he verily believes, or shall satisfy such officer that such debtor is about to abscond, to the injury of his creditors, or that such debtor is not a resident of the territory, or that he so conceals himself as to avoid the service of process, or that such debtor is about to remove his property or effects out of the territory, or is about fraudulently to remove, convey, or dispose of the same, so as to hinder or delay his creditors, and shall file the same with the clerk of the district court, such clerk shall issue a writ of attachment. This attachment reaches all the lands, tenements, goods, chattels, rights, credits, moneys, and effects of the creditor, except such as are exempt from execution, wheresoever the same may be found. No attachment issued under the provisions of the statute, at the suit of any person who is not a freeholder, or a resident of the county, shall be served by the said officer, unless the same shall be endorsed by some freeholder of the county as security for costs.

If the plaintiff, or other credible person, shall make oath that he has good reason to, and verily does believe, that any person (naming him) has property (describing the same) in his possession belonging to the defendant in the attachment, such person shall be summoned as a garnishee to appear at court and answer under oath all questions put to him touching the property and effects of the defendant in his possession, or within his knowledge, and such garnishee shall stand liable to the plaintiff in the attachment from the day of service. And a suit of *capias ad respondendum* may be instituted against such garnishee, who shall be held to special bail, on the plaintiff, or other credible person, making and filing oath that he has good reason to, and verily does believe, that such garnishee will abscond before judgment and execution can be had against him.

The first and second term after the issuing of the writ of attachment, the defendant is called and his default entered; at or before which second term the said plaintiff, *and every other creditor of the defendant*, may file their declarations setting forth in a proper manner their cause of action. After judgment for the plaintiff in the attachment, the property attached shall be sold, and the proceeds thereof, after discharging the judgment of the first attaching creditor, shall be divided among the other creditors in proportion to the amount of their respective judgments.

Creditors whose demands amount to not more than fifty dollars, and not less than five dollars, may sue their debtors by *attachment*, before a justice of the peace in the following cases:—

1st. When the debtor is not a resident of the territory.

2d. When the debtor has absconded or concealed himself, so that the ordinary process of law cannot be served upon him.

3. When the debtor is about to abscond, or remove his property out of the territory, so as to hinder and delay his creditors.

4th. When there is good reason to believe that the debtor is about fraudulently to convey or dispose of his property or effects, so as to hinder or delay his creditors.

Every action instituted by attachment must be brought before some justice of the county wherein the property of the defendant may be found.

BILLS OF EXCHANGE AND PROMISSORY NOTES.

All bills of exchange which may be drawn within the territory, upon any person or persons, body politic or corporate, out of the United States, or territories thereof, and which shall be protested for non-acceptance or non-payment, the drawer or endorser of such bills shall pay them with legal interest, according to their tenor, and *twenty* per cent damages in addition, together with the costs and charges of protest. The damages on all bills of exchange drawn on some person or persons, body politic or corporate, out of the territory, but within some state or territory adjoining the territory of Wisconsin, are *five* per cent, but when drawn on some person or persons, body politic or corporate, out of the territory, but not within a state or territory which adjoins the territory of Wisconsin, the damages are *ten* per cent.

All promissory notes in writing made and signed by any person, or by a factor, or agent of any merchant or trader usually intrusted therewith, whereby such person, or any merchant or trader, by such factor or agent, shall promise to pay to any other person, body politic or corporate, his or their order, or unto bearer, any sum of money therein mentioned, shall by virtue thereof be taken and construed to be due and payable as therein expressed, and shall have the same effect and be negotiable in like manner as inland bills of exchange, according to the custom of merchants; and the payees or endorsees of every such note payable to them, or their order, shall and may maintain their action for such sum of money, against the makers and endorsers of the same respectively, in like manner as in cases of inland bills of exchange, and not otherwise.

JUDGMENTS.

All judgments in the district court of the territory have the operation of, and are liens upon, the real estate of the person or persons against whom such judgments may be rendered, from the day of the rendition thereof, in

the county within which such judgment may be rendered, and the county or counties thereto attached for judicial purposes. It is made the duty of the clerk of any court in which such judgments have been rendered, when applied to for the purpose, to make out an attested copy of the record of such judgment, authenticated by the seal of the court, which attested copy may be filed in the office of the clerk of any district court within the territory, and when so filed it shall operate as a lien upon the real estate of the person or persons against whom such judgment may have been rendered, situate in the county in which the same may have been as aforesaid filed and entered, in the same manner and to the same legal extent that the same would have done had such judgment been originally in the district court of the said county. No judgment can operate as a lien on, or bind real estate, after the lapse of ten years from and after the date of the rendition thereof, unless the same be renewed and revived by *scire facias* against the judgment debtor, his heirs, or devisees, or *terre tenants*.

EXECUTIONS.

Real estate sold under execution in the territory, or any distinct part or parcel, may be redeemed within two years from the date of the sale of the same. The terms and manner of redeeming real estate are by the payment to the purchaser, his personal representatives, attorney or assigns, or to the officer who made such sale, for the use of such purchaser, of the sum of money which was bid on the sale of such real estate, together with interest on that sum from the time of sale at the rate of twelve per cent per annum. The following property is exempt from sale and levy under execution:—All spinning-wheels, weaving-loom or stoves, put up, or kept for use in any dwelling-house. The family bible, family pictures, and school books used by or in the family of such person, and books, not exceeding in value one hundred dollars, which are kept and used as part of the family library. A seat or pew occupied by such person or his family in any house or place of public worship. All sheep to the number of ten, with their fleeces, and the yarn or cloth manufactured from the same; one cow, five swine, the necessary food for all of them, all pork, beef, fish, flour, and vegetables actually provided for family use and necessary for six months' support, and necessary fuel for the family for one year. All wearing apparel, beds, bedsteads, rocking cradle, and bedding provided for the use of such person and his family, necessary cooking utensils, one table, six chairs, six knives and forks, six plates, six teacups and saucers, one sugar-dish, one milk-pot, one tea-pot and six spoons, one crane and its appendages, one pair of andirons, and a shovel and tongs; other household furniture necessary for the debtor and his family not exceeding fifty dollars in value. The tools and implements of any mechanic or miner necessary to the carrying on of his trade, not exceeding one hundred dollars in value. The uniform of an officer, non-commissioned officer or private in the militia, and the arms and accoutrements required by law to be kept by him. Rights of burial and tombs, whilst in use, as repositories for the dead. All necessary farming utensils not exceeding in value forty dollars, and one work horse not exceeding in value sixty dollars, or one yoke of oxen, are exempt from execution where the principal occupation of the debtor is farming. The libraries of lawyers, physicians, and clergymen, and surgical instruments are exempt from execution, not exceeding two hundred dollars in value.

CONVEYANCES.

All deeds or other conveyances of any lands, tenements, or hereditaments lying in the territory, signed, sealed and delivered by the parties granting the same, and signed by two or more witnesses, and acknowledged by the party or parties executing the same, or proved by one or more of the subscribing witnesses, before one of the judges or commissioners of the supreme court, a notary public, or a justice of the peace of any county within the territory, and a certificate of such acknowledgment or proof being endorsed thereon, and recorded in the office of register of deeds for the county where such lands, &c., are situate, are good and valid to pass the same lands, tenements, or hereditaments, to the grantee or grantees, without any other act or ceremony in law whatever.

All deeds and conveyances of lands, tenements, or hereditaments situate, lying, and being within the territory of Wisconsin, which may be made and executed in any other state, territory, or country, whereby such lands, tenements, or hereditaments, shall be conveyed in whole or in part, shall be acknowledged or proved and certified according to, and in conformity with the laws and usage of the territory, state, or country, in which such deeds and conveyances were acknowledged and proved; and all such deeds and conveyances are effectual and valid in law to all intents and purposes, as though the same acknowledgments had been taken or proof of execution made within the territory, and in pursuance of the laws thereof; and such deeds and conveyances so acknowledged or proved as aforesaid, may be recorded in the respective counties in which such lands, tenements, or hereditaments may lie.

INTEREST.

Any rate of interest which persons may agree upon, not exceeding twelve per cent per annum, is legal and valid. Upon all bills of exchange, promissory notes, contracts, debts, or demands, wherein the rate of interest is not specified, it is computed at seven per cent per annum.

PARTNERSHIP.

Whenever, in any action, the plaintiffs in their declaration, or the defendants in their plea or notice, aver that the plaintiffs or defendants, or third persons were partners at any particular time; or that as such partners they used any particular partnership name or style under which business was done; such averments are taken to be true, unless expressly denied by the affidavit of the opposite party, or some one in his behalf, within the usual time of pleading.

SACREDNESS OF DEBTS.

PROPERTY purchased on credit is a deposit placed in your hands, which it would be fraudulent for you to use in any manner so as to endanger the interests of your creditors. Flattering prospects of gain in this way sometimes occur; but they too often prove delusive, and leave the rash adventurer under an insupportable load of responsibility. Debts are sacred, and every honest man will do every thing in his power to discharge his obligations, with punctuality and honor.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES,

ACCORDING TO THE SIX ENUMERATIONS; FROM THE OFFICIAL REVISION.

States.	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.
Maine,.....	96,540	151,719	228,705	298,335	399,955	501,793
New Hampshire,.....	141,899	183,762	214,360	244,161	269,328	284,574
Vermont,.....	85,416	154,465	217,713	235,764	280,652	291,948
Massachusetts,.....	378,717	423,245	472,040	523,287	610,408	737,699
Rhode Island,.....	69,110	69,122	77,031	83,059	97,199	108,830
Connecticut,.....	238,141	251,002	262,042	275,202	297,665	309,978
New York,.....	340,120	586,756	959,949	1,372,812	1,918,608	2,428,921
New Jersey,.....	184,139	211,949	249,555	277,575	320,823	373,306
Pennsylvania,.....	434,373	602,365	810,091	1,049,458	1,348,233	1,724,033
Delaware,.....	59,098	64,273	72,674	72,749	76,748	78,085
Maryland,.....	319,728	341,548	380,546	407,350	447,040	469,232
Virginia,.....	748,308	880,200	974,622	1,065,379	1,211,405	1,239,797
North Carolina,.....	393,751	478,103	555,500	638,829	737,987	753,419
South Carolina,.....	249,073	345,591	415,115	502,741	581,185	594,398
Georgia,.....	82,548	162,101	252,433	340,987	516,823	691,392
Alabama,.....			20,845	127,901	309,527	590,756
Mississippi,.....		8,850	40,352	75,448	136,621	375,651
Louisiana,.....			76,556	153,407	215,739	352,411
Arkansas,.....				14,273	30,388	97,574
Tennessee,.....	35,791	105,602	261,727	422,813	681,904	829,210
Kentucky,.....	73,077	220,955	406,511	564,317	687,917	779,828
Ohio,.....		45,365	230,760	581,434	937,903	1,519,467
Michigan,.....			4,762	8,896	31,639	212,267
Indiana,.....		4,875	24,520	147,178	343,031	685,866
Illinois,.....			12,282	55,211	157,455	476,183
Missouri,.....			20,845	66,586	140,445	383,702
District of Columbia,....		14,093	24,023	33,039	39,834	43,712
Florida,.....					34,730	54,477
Wisconsin,.....						30,945
Iowa,.....						43,112
TOTAL,.....	3,929,827	5,305,925	7,239,814	9,638,131	12,866,920	17,062,566

CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES, FOR 1840.

We have embodied in the succeeding pages an epitome of the whole population of the states and territories of the United States, exhibiting the general aggregate amount of each description of persons, as compiled from the official returns of the marshals of the several states and territories, as received at the Department of State under the law for taking the sixth decennial census.

1. Number of free white males, of different ages, in each state and territory.
2. Number of free white females, of different ages, in each state and territory.
3. Number of free colored males and females in each state and territory.
4. Number of colored male and female slaves in each state and territory.
5. Number of persons in each state, employed in mining, agriculture, commerce, navigation of the ocean, navigation of canals, lakes and rivers, learned professions, and engineers in each state and territory.
6. Number of pensioners, for revolutionary or military services, in each state, &c.
7. Number of deaf and dumb, blind and insane persons, white and colored, in each state and territory.
8. Number of universities or colleges, students, academies and grammar schools, scholars, of scholars at public charge, and number of white persons, over twenty years of age, who cannot read and write.

1.—Number of Free White Males, of Different Ages, in each State and Territory of the United States, in 1840.

3.—Number of Free Colored Persons, Male and Female, in each State and Territory of the United States, in 1840.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	FREE COLORED MALES.						FREE COLORED FEMALES.					
	Under 10.	10 and under 24.	24 and under 36.	36 and under 55.	Population.	Total.	Under 10.	10 and under 24.	24 and under 36.	36 and under 55.	Population.	Total.
Maine,.....	149	231	135	137	67	720	147	195	128	109	54	635
New Hampshire,...	57	68	42	48	33	248	50	66	54	61	56	289
Massachusetts,....	908	1,119	1,444	871	306	4,654	899	1,058	868	771	417	4,014
Rhode Island,....	355	388	319	242	109	1,413	318	489	425	360	232	1,825
Connecticut,.....	935	1,165	710	746	331	3,891	967	1,238	860	715	433	4,214
Vermont,.....	91	99	74	60	38	364	76	106	65	76	43	366
New York,.....	6,008	6,370	5,711	4,221	1,476	23,809	6,032	6,951	6,809	4,454	1,928	26,218
New Jersey,.....	3,019	3,429	1,978	1,639	711	10,780	2,834	3,106	2,079	1,485	748	10,264
Pennsylvania,.....	6,245	6,192	5,182	3,697	1,400	22,752	6,264	7,426	6,071	3,806	1,505	25,102
Delaware,	2,740	2,679	1,392	1,163	645	8,626	2,618	2,457	1,415	1,127	662	8,293
Maryland,	9,460	7,727	4,772	4,670	2,494	29,173	9,134	8,626	6,686	5,423	2,902	32,847
Virginia,.....	7,958	7,165	3,898	3,135	1,652	20,094	7,899	7,616	4,871	3,556	2,046	26,024
North Carolina,...	3,962	3,593	1,665	1,255	734	11,227	3,704	3,475	2,043	1,454	801	11,505
South Carolina,...	1,403	1,105	677	405	262	3,864	1,392	1,272	858	545	338	4,412
Georgia,.....	427	375	232	195	137	1,374	375	381	229	192	178	1,379
Alabama,.....	301	296	170	152	107	1,030	271	313	188	124	104	1,009
Mississippi,.....	228	168	125	114	76	718	181	151	133	122	59	651
Louisiana,.....	4,015	3,207	2,014	1,581	683	11,526	4,163	3,679	2,971	2,164	986	13,976
Tennessee,.....	973	772	372	379	294	2,796	881	742	445	367	285	2,728
Kentucky,.....	1,048	786	534	754	629	3,761	936	800	536	680	593	3,556
Ohio,	2,560	2,688	1,719	1,175	579	8,740	2,630	2,784	1,640	1,053	487	8,602
Indiana,.....	1,258	1,119	620	497	229	3,731	1,112	1,100	592	413	215	3,434
Illinois,.....	548	568	377	265	117	1,876	536	570	311	201	102	1,722
Missouri,.....	193	195	266	154	74	883	152	159	152	133	89	691
Arkansas,.....	77	56	62	34	16	248	67	60	35	32	21	217
Michigan,.....	93	103	119	62	16	393	80	98	76	46	13	314
Florida,.....	108	125	87	49	29	398	108	123	78	75	35	419
Wisconsin,.....	16	32	28	19	6	101	21	27	20	12	4	84
Iowa,.....	20	31	22	14	6	93	14	39	8	16	2	79
Dist. of Columbia,	1,168	948	562	525	237	3,453	1,208	1,455	1,027	813	390	4,908
TOTAL,.....	56,323	52,799	35,308	28,258	13,493	186,467	55,069	56,562	41,673	30,385	15,728	199,778

**GRAND TOTAL OF THE POPULATION OF THE STATES AND TERRITORIES OF THE UNITED STATES,
ACCORDING TO TABLES 1, 2, 3, AND 4.**

Maine,.....	501,793	Mississippi,.....	375,651
New Hampshire,.....	284,574	Louisiana,.....	352,411
Massachusetts,.....	737,699	Tennessee,.....	829,210
Rhode Island,.....	108,830	Kentucky,.....	779,828
Connecticut,.....	309,978	Ohio,.....	1,519,467
Vermont,.....	291,948	Indiana,.....	685,866
New York,.....	2,428,921	Illinois,.....	476,183
New Jersey,.....	373,306	Missouri,.....	383,702
Pennsylvania,.....	1,724,033	Arkansas,.....	97,574
Delaware,.....	78,085	Michigan,.....	212,267
Maryland,.....	469,232	Florida,.....	54,477
Virginia,.....	1,239,797	Wisconsin,.....	30,945
North Carolina,.....	753,419	Iowa,.....	43,112
South Carolina,.....	594,398	District of Columbia,.....	43,712
Georgia,.....	691,392		
Alabama,.....	590,756	GRAND TOTAL OF THE U. S.....*	17,062,566

* Total number of persons on board of vessels of war in the United States naval service, June 1, 1840, 6,100; making the total aggregate of the population of the United States, 17,068,666.

5.—Number of Persons employed in Mining, Agriculture, Commerce, Manufactures and Trades, Navigation of the Ocean, Navigation of Canals, Lakes and Rivers, Learned Professions, and Engineers in each State and Territory of the U. S., in 1840.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Mining.	Agriculture.	Commerce.	Manufactures and Trades.	Navigation of the Ocean.	Navigation of Canals, Lakes, and Rivers.	Learned Professions and Engineers.
Maine,.....	36	101,630	2,921	21,879	10,091	539	1,889
New Hampshire,....	13	77,949	1,379	17,826	452	198	1,640
Massachusetts,.....	499	87,837	8,063	85,176	27,153	372	3,804
Rhode Island,.....	35	16,617	1,348	21,271	1,717	228	457
Connecticut,.....	151	56,955	2,743	27,932	2,700	431	1,697
Vermont,.....	77	73,150	1,303	13,174	41	146	1,563
New York,.....	1,898	455,954	28,468	173,193	5,511	10,167	14,111
New Jersey,.....	266	56,701	2,283	27,004	1,143	1,625	1,627
Pennsylvania,.....	4,603	207,533	15,338	105,883	1,815	3,951	6,706
Delaware,.....	5	16,015	467	4,060	401	235	199
Maryland,.....	313	69,851	3,249	21,325	721	1,519	1,647
Virginia,.....	1,995	318,771	6,361	54,147	582	2,952	3,866
North Carolina,.....	589	217,095	1,734	14,322	327	379	1,086
South Carolina,.....	51	198,363	1,958	10,325	381	348	1,481
Georgia,.....	574	209,383	2,428	7,984	262	352	1,250
Alabama,.....	96	177,439	2,212	7,195	256	758	1,514
Mississippi,.....	14	139,724	1,303	4,151	33	100	1,506
Louisiana,.....		79,289	8,549	7,565	1,322	662	1,018
Tennessee,.....	103	227,739	2,217	17,815	55	302	2,042
Kentucky,.....	331	197,738	3,448	23,217	44	968	2,487
Ohio,.....	704	272,579	9,201	66,265	212	3,323	5,663
Indiana,.....	233	148,806	3,076	20,590	89	627	2,257
Illinois,.....	782	105,337	2,506	13,185	63	310	2,021
Missouri,.....	742	92,408	2,522	11,100	39	1,885	1,469
Arkansas,.....	41	26,355	215	1,173	3	39	301
Michigan,.....	40	56,521	728	6,890	24	166	904
Florida,.....	1	12,117	481	1,177	435	118	204
Wisconsin,.....	794	7,047	479	1,814	14	209	259
Iowa,.....	217	10,469	355	1,629	13	78	365
Dist. of Columbia,....		384	240	2,278	126	80	203
TOTAL,.....	15,203	3,717,756	117,575	791,545	56,025	33,067	65,236

6.—Number of Pensioners, for Revolutionary and Military Services, in each State and Territory of the United States, in 1840.

Maine,.....	1,409	Virginia,.....	993	Illinois,.....	195
New Hampshire,....	1,408	North Carolina,.....	609	Missouri,.....	122
Massachusetts,.....	2,462	South Carolina,.....	318	Arkansas,.....	24
Rhode Island,.....	601	Georgia,.....	325	Michigan,.....	90
Connecticut,.....	1,666	Alabama,.....	192	Florida,.....	16
Vermont,.....	1,320	Mississippi,.....	63	Wisconsin,.....	9
New York,.....	4,089	Louisiana,.....	12	Iowa,.....	2
New Jersey,.....	472	Tennessee,.....	895	District of Columbia,	15
Pennsylvania,.....	1,251	Kentucky,.....	886		
Delaware,.....	4	Ohio,.....	875		
Maryland,.....	94	Indiana,.....	380		
				TOTAL,.....	20,797

7.—Number of Deaf and Dumb, Blind, and Insane (White and Colored) Persons, in each State and Territory in the United States, in 1840.

STATES AND TERRITORIES OF THE UNITED STATES.	DEAF AND DUMB, BLIND, AND INSANE WHITE PERSONS.						DEAF, DUMB, BLIND, AND INSANE COLORED PERSONS.			
	DEAF AND DUMB.			BLIND.	INSANE AND IDIOTS.		EAF, DUMB, AND BLIND.		INSANE AND IDIOTS.	
	Under 14.	14 and under 25.	25 and upwards.		At Public Charge.	At Private Charge.	Deaf and Dumb.	Blind.	At Private Charge.	At Public Charge.
Maine,.....	47	73	102	180	207	330	13	10	56	38
N. Hampshire,..	43	41	97	153	180	306	9	3	8	11
Massachusetts, .	56	63	154	308	471	600	17	22	27	173
Rhode Island,...	15	25	34	63	117	86	3	1	8	5
Connecticut,....	60	141	108	143	114	384	8	13	20	24
Vermont,.....	27	19	89	101	144	254	2	2	9	4
New York,.....	269	362	408	875	683	1,463	68	91	138	56
New Jersey,....	33	29	102	126	144	225	15	26	46	27
Pennsylvania,...	225	225	331	540	469	1,477	51	96	132	55
Delaware,.....	18	15	12	15	22	30	8	18	21	7
Maryland,.....	43	58	77	165	133	254	66	91	99	42
Virginia,.....	133	111	209	426	317	731	150	466	326	58
North Carolina,	82	80	118	223	152	428	74	167	192	29
South Carolina,	40	41	59	133	91	285	78	156	121	16
Georgia,.....	78	62	53	136	51	243	64	151	108	26
Alabama,.....	72	53	48	113	39	193	53	96	100	25
Mississippi,.....	25	16	23	43	14	102	28	69	66	16
Louisiana,.....	14	17	11	37	6	49	17	36	38	7
Tennessee,.....	102	93	96	255	103	596	67	99	124	28
Kentucky,.....	120	128	152	236	305	490	77	141	132	48
Ohio,.....	167	198	194	372	363	832	33	33	103	62
Indiana,.....	112	91	94	135	110	377	15	19	47	28
Illinois,.....	54	48	53	86	36	177	24	10	65	14
Missouri,.....	48	32	46	82	42	160	27	42	50	18
Arkansas,.....	18	11	11	26	9	36	2	8	13	8
Michigan,.....	7	9	15	25	2	37	2	4	21	5
Florida,.....	6	4	4	9	1	9	2	10	12
Wisconsin,.....	1	4	9	1	7	3
Iowa,.....	3	2	5	3	2	5	4	3	4
D. of Columbia,	1	5	2	6	1	13	4	9	4	3
TOTAL,.....	1,919	2,056	2,707	5,024	4,329	10,179	977	1,892	2,093	833

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.**RUSSIAN PORTS—ST. PETERSBURG, &c.****INFORMATION FOR SHIPMASTERS.**

1. Ships arriving must stop before reaching the outer Guard-ship, at which the ship's papers have to be produced, and the bills of lading presented in *duplo*. The proper officer signs the ship's papers, and seals up the bills of lading in a cover, returning both to the master. The hatchways are at the same time sealed up, and the ship receives a pilot from the Guard-ship, after which she proceeds onwards to the inward Guard-ship, stationed before the harbor.

2. Before entering the harbor, the master, with all his papers, has to appear on board of the inward Guard-ship, and in the Harbour-Master's Office, at the mole head, leaving with the latter the cover containing the bills of lading. After this, the ship is searched for the first time.

3. All letters for parties on shore must be delivered up to the Harbor-master on arrival. Russian bank notes found on board when the vessel is searched, are seized without redemption. Bills of health obtained at Elsinore must be produced.

4. Within 24 hours after arrival, the master has to appear at the Cronstadt Custom-house, and within 48 hours to make his declaration, which is taken down in writing, and signed by him. After signing, he is allowed 24 hours more for final correction of errors and omissions; at the expiration of these 24 hours, the second searching of the ship takes place, and errors may still be corrected before the officers have set about their duty.

5. In the declaration, the master must give an account of his crew, by name, and a note of the names and professions of his passengers, their luggage and goods, each passenger being bound to furnish a note of the contents of every parcel belonging to him, without which particulars the declaration is not received at the Custom-house. He must further reproduce his ship's pass, bill of health and register, a list of his ship's stores and provisions, and declare his cargo in conformity with the contents of his bills of lading.

6. Goods brought to order, if contraband, and the owner on shore not to be found, are considered as belonging to the master, who is liable for them accordingly.

7. Masters of ships, and their crews, as well as passengers, may bring goods of their own for sale without bills of lading, and dispose of them on shore after making entry and paying duty.

8. Under the denomination of "ship's provisions," all ships arriving from beyond the Sound are allowed to bring duty free, for every man on board, including the master, 2 ankers spirits, 1 anker wine, 3 ankers malt liquor, 10 lb. coffee, 1½ lb. tea, and 1 pood of sugar, Russian weight; any excess, if on board, must be entered for re-exportation. Ships coming from within the Sound are only allowed half the specified quantities.

9. The Custom-house takes charge of the ship's provisions, leaving a certain quantity only on board, and giving out more by degrees, as wanted.

10. It is necessary for every master, with an inward cargo, to make a protest on his arrival, and to remark this in his declaration. The protest has to be noted within 24 hours, to be extended and sworn to within seven days after arrival.

11. To prevent the Custom-house officers from boarding ships unnecessarily, it is desired that for the first search the flag be hoisted on the mainmast, and for the second or final search, on the foremast.

12. In the harbor a ship can neither be moved nor moored without leave obtained at the Molehead, and never without the attendance of a pilot.

13. From Cronstadt no ship can proceed up to St. Petersburg without leave, and a pass obtained from the Custom-house, nor without having the hatchways sealed up first.

14. In all cases of sea damage of the goods, surveys must be held, and immediate notice thereof given to the consul or vice consul of the nation to which the vessel belongs, who will then appoint a person to attend the survey in behalf of the consignees of the goods.

15. For obtaining ballast prams, the master has to apply to the Captain of the inward Guard-ship.

16. The proper Yerliks or permits to take on board fresh provisions are issued by the Custom-house, and have to be applied for.

17. No goods from St. Petersburg can be taken on board from shore or craft, without the proper permits or Yerliks accompanying them, as issued by the Custom-house at St. Petersburg.

18. No ships arriving from or going to sea, are allowed to anchor in the roads between the Man-of-war's Corner, the East end of the Cronstadt Island, and the West corner of the Cronslot fort, unless obliged to do so by necessity.

19. Non-conformation to these rules incurs fines and penalties. Consuls' clerks are in constant attendance at the mole head to give advice to shipmasters, besides providing them with a printed copy of the detailed Regulations of the Port to be attended to.

BILLS OF LADING FOR THE RUSSIAN TRADE.

1. The Custom-house regulations in Russia require the production of regular Bills of Lading in duplo relative to all goods a ship brings, excepting only the ship's provisions, passengers' effects, and goods belonging to the ship-master himself, which he may declare and enter for sale without having presented Bills of Lading.

2. The particulars which Bills of Lading are required to set forth in order to be deemed regular documents, are:—(1) The port of shipment and the shipper, with the name of the ship and her master, and where bound; (2) The consignee or receiver of the goods, or in lieu thereof "to order," at the port of destination; (3) A designation of the goods by the marks and numbers, and the number of packages, parcels, pieces, or casks, as invoiced, with the denomination of kind and quality, so as to identify the contents; (4) The aggregate of the foreign weight or measure or number of pieces of every parcel of the same kind and quality of goods. The number of packages, parcels, or pieces should be written out, if possible, in words, and the denominations of kind and quality be stated conformably with the classification adopted in the Russian Tariff, which is particularly essential with reference to manufactures. The weight or measure per Invoice must be distinctly denoted, and the denominations clearly added to the ciphers.

3. In some cases the gross weight only, and in others the nett weight only, is required. The following list will afford a practical illustration of the aforesaid, namely—to tarable colonials and drugs give the mark and numbers and the number of boxes, chests, casks, bags, bales, baskets, or bundles of *raw Havana, Rio Janeiro, Pernambuco, East Indian, or West Indian Sugar*; Coffee; Rice; Cassia Lignea; Cinnamon; Ginger; Cocoa; Almonds; Tin in bars; Banca Tin; Tin plates; Shumac; Safflower; Shellac; Argol; Quercitron Bark; Gums Senegal, Arabic, Benjamin, Olibanum, Lac in grains and the like; *refined Borax*; *raw Borax*; Aloes; Sago; *cleaned Whalebone*; *uncleaned Whalebone*; Cream of Tartar, or Chrystal Tartari; Manganese; Galangal Root; *British Salamoniac*; *Egyptian Salamoniac*; Madders; Antimony Crude; *Yellow or Red Ochre*; Orchil; Pumice Stone; Raisins; Currants; Figs; Indigo, if in serons; Cochineal; Cudbear; *white Cotton Yarn*; *dyed Cotton Yarn*; Cotton Wool; Raw, Organizine, or Trammed Silk; Woollen Yarn; refined Camphire; Cardamoms; Mace; Nutmegs; Cloves; Pepper; Pimento; India Rubber, in bottles or shoes; Radix Sarsaparilla; Saffron; Tor-

toise Shell; Senna Leaves; Cinnabar; Cheese; Verditer; Annato; Orange or Lemon Peel; Tobacco in leaves with stems; Tobacco in *leaves without stems*; Tobacco stems; Segars; Alum; Raw Brimstone; *Flowers* of Brimstone; White Lead; *Red Lead*; Litharge; Olive Oil; Corkwood; for all these articles under the exact denominations of kind and quality as above given, it is not only sufficient, but also more expedient to insert the gross weight only, by stating distinctly

"weighing—gross *Tons.* *Cwt.* *gr.* *lb.*
 00 00 00 00."

If any of the words—"gross, tons, cwt., grs., or lb.," be omitted, or any thing *blotted out, erased, and altered, or left blank*, the B. L. is deemed irregular, and a fine is incurred for every omission or irregularity.

4. For these, and the like articles, the gross weight is sufficient, because the regulations allow the following fixed tares, after deduction of which, the remainder is deemed nett weight, paying duty, namely:—

On Olive Oil, in casks,.....	per cent	17
On Raw Sugar, if imported direct from the Havana,.....	"	11½
do. do. from Rio Janeiro or Pernambuco,.....	"	16½
do. do. from Bahia,.....	"	12

But if the same be imported from any other quarter, the real tare is ascertained by starting and weighing out.

On Cotton Twist, in bales,.....	per cent	6
" do. in casks or chests,.....	"	15
" Alum, in casks or chests,.....	"	8
" Red Lead, in do. do.	"	8
" Cochineal, which is taken out of the cask, and weighed for duty with the bags only, For a bag of 4 to 7 poods (about 1 1-4 to 2 1-3 cwt.).....	pounds	2
For a bag of 2 to 3 1-2 poods (about 2-3 to 1 1-10 cwt.).....	"	1
" Indigo, in serons of 5 1-2 to 7 poods (about 1 3-4 to 2 1-6 cwt.)...lbs. per seron		34
" do. in ½ serons of 2 1-2 to 4 poods (about 3-4 to 1 1-4 cwt.)...lbs. per ½ seron		20
" do. Guatemala, in casks or chests,.....	per cent	20
" do. East Indian, the real tare is ascertained by starting and weighing out.		
" Tin, in casks,.....	per cent	6
" Quicksilver, in leather bags,.....	"	9
" Earthenware, in casks,.....	"	20
" do. in baskets,.....	"	12
" Gum lacs, in casks,.....	"	15
" do. in chests,.....	"	25
" Sheepswool, in bales,.....	"	3

On the other articles:—If in chests, boxes, or wooden vessels,.....	per cent	10
If in earthen or glass vessels,.....	"	20
If in single hempen, or linen bags or sacks,.....	"	2
If in double hempen, or linen bags or sacks,.....	"	4
If in bast or mat bags,.....	"	3
If in both hempen or linen and mat bags,.....	"	5
If in baskets,.....	"	5

But if the receiver of the goods think that the real tare be heavier than the fixed rate allows, he may require the goods being started, and the exact weight of the tare ascertained.

5. With regard to untarable goods, or such from which the vessels holding them cannot conveniently be separated—for instance, quicksilver in cast-iron bottles, preserves, pomatum, perfumes, and the like, as specified in the tariff—it is required to insert the weight, inclusive of the bottles or vessels which pay duty along with the merchandise. Thus 20 bottles of quicksilver had to pay duty for 51½ poods, including the weight of the iron bottles, while the invoiced nett weight was only equal to 42 poods 12½ lb. The foreign weight inserted in the bill of lading was equal to 51½ poods, neither the gross weight of the cask holding the 20 bottles, nor the actual nett weight of the quicksilver by itself being required.

6. To goods shipped in bulk, or by pieces, besides marks and numbers, if any, insert :—to raw Brimstone, tons, cwt., qrs., and lb. ; to Lead in pigs, Lead in sheets or rolls ; Logwood ; Red St. Martin's, Nicaragua, Lima and Sapan wood, the number of pigs, rolls or pieces, and the weight by tons, cwt., qrs., and lb. ; to Mahogany wood, the number of logs, and the aggregate weight in tons, cwt., qrs., and lb. ; to white refined, or Rock Liverpool Salt, the weight by tons, cwt., qrs. and lb. ; to coals, (duty free,) the number of chaldrons shipped.

7. To salted herrings, insert the number of barrels with the marks and numbers, weight not required, unless exceeding 9 poods gross per barrel, by which weight the duty is regulated.

8. To Wines and Spirits, besides the marks and numbers, insert :—to Rum, the number of puncheons, adding the contents by gallons ; to Port wine, Madeira, and Benecarlo, the number of pipes, half and quarter pipes, if in such—or of bottles, if in bottles ; to Porter, the number of hogsheads, if in such—or of bottles, if in such. If shipped in any other vessels than the legally determined standards of pipes, hogsheads, or bottles, then the measure by imperial gallons must be added.

9. To Lemons and Oranges, besides the marks and numbers, the number of boxes of each kind is required ; the duty is levied on whatever quantity is found to be sound on delivery.

10. To Skins and Furs, Woollen, Cotton, Linen and Silk manufactures, paying duty by the nett weight, inclusive of any inside boards and thin paper wrappers, that cannot be easily separated without injuring the stuff in handling the pieces, insert the outside marks and numbers, with the number of bales or cases ; specify the contents of each kind or quality by the term of the material of which it is manufactured ; for instance—Woollen, Cotton, Linen or Silk goods, denoting the mixture if composed of any two or more materials ; for instance—Woollen mixed with Cotton : Woollen mixed with Silk : and add the nett weight of each description of goods, separately, including the inside boards, and inside paper wrappers, if any ; further particulars as to color, transparency, or non-transparency, must be specified in the invoices, with the nett weight of each description, separately, as being required for making a correct entry. The variety of articles of this description being very great, no preciser rules to suit every case can here be given. In doubtful cases shippers will do well to apply to their St. Petersburg correspondents for special information as to the particulars to be given, so as to avoid difficulties in making entry. Of new articles, patterns should be sent along with the inquiry. It is also advisable and expedient to accompany a parcel of manufactures by the patterns thereof in a *separate packet*, directed to the consignee, and superscribed as containing *patterns*.

11. The Bill of Entry, given in at the Custom-house by the receiver, sets forth the contents of the Bill of Lading, with a reduction of the British or other foreign weight or measure into Russian weight and measure. This reduced Russian weight and measure is required to correspond with what is actually weighed or measured out after landing, within a scope of 8 per cent below or above what the entry shows ; if the difference turn out to be above 8 per cent either way, no damage appearing, the Bill of Lading and Entry are deemed irregular, and the consequence by law is payment of duty for any underweight, or confiscation of any overweight found. This regulation does not refer to waste by leakage and evaporation.

12. The receiver's or consignee's entry at the Custom-house must be made within 14 days after arrival of the ship at Cronstadt ; if made later, a fine is incurred, and such is also imposed for every other omission or irregularity, as above stated.

13. The remission of fines imposed cannot be obtained otherwise than by petitioning the Department, or Board of Foreign Trade, explaining the causes of the irregularity, and

adducing proofs that no fraud was intended. In cases where the circumstances are any ways favorable to the petitioner, the Department generally obtains leave from the Minister of Finance to remit the fine imposed, and always gives a speedy decision.

14. The shipmasters have to be provided with three sets of bills of lading of each parcel of goods, two sets having to be delivered at the outer Guard-ship in the roads, where they are sealed up in a cover and directed to the Custom-house at Cronstadt, and the third set is wanted by the master himself for encashing his freight money.

15. In the course of eight months (the term fixed for payment after arrival,) consignees are at liberty to abandon the goods to the Custom-house, in lieu of duties, if damaged, or not of sufficient value in the market to bear the duty due thereon. In such cases the Custom-house makes the most of the goods by public sale.

RATES OF TOLL CHARGEABLE ON THE PENNSYLVANIA CANALS AND RAILWAYS, FOR 1842.

The following are the rates of toll to be charged on the Pennsylvania State Canal and railroads, after January 25, 1842.

CANAL.				RAILWAY.				CANAL.				RAILWAY.			
Per Mile.				Per Mile.				Per Mile.				Per Mile.			
per 1000 lbs.				per 1000 lbs.				per 1000 lbs.				per 1000 lbs.			
cts.	m.	cts.	m.	cts.	m.	cts.	m.	cts.	m.	cts.	m.	cts.	m.	cts.	m.
Ashes, pot and pearl,...	0	5	0	8	Iron, roll. and ham. sh't,	0	7	0	8	do. pig and scrap,....	0	4	0	6	
Bacon,.....	0	4	0	5	Lard,.....	0	3	0	6	Leather,.....	1	0	1	5	
Bark, ground,.....	0	5	0	8	Lead,.....	0	2	0	5	Liquors, foreign,.....	0	8	1	2	
Beef, salted,.....	0	3	0	6	Liquors, foreign,.....	0	8	1	2	Nails and Spikes,.....	0	8	1	0	
Boards and sawed tim.	0	4	0	5	Oats,.....	0	5	0	7	Oil, (except Castor,)..	0	5	1	0	
Butter,.....	0	4	0	6	Oil, (except Castor,)..	0	5	1	0	Paints and Dyestuffs,...	1	0	1	5	
Burr blocks,.....	0	3	0	8	Paints and Dyestuffs,...	1	0	1	5	Pork,.....	0	3	0	5	
Coal, mineral,.....	0	2½	0	3	Pork,.....	0	3	0	5	Queen's ware & China,	0	5	1	2	
Coffee,.....	0	5	1	0	Queen's ware & China,	0	5	1	2	Rags,.....	0	5	1	0	
Corn, Indian,.....	0	5	0	7	Rags,.....	0	5	1	0	Rosin and Pitch,.....	0	5	1	0	
Cotton,.....	0	2	0	5	Rosin and Pitch,.....	0	5	1	0	Rye,.....	0	5	0	7	
Drugs and Medicines,..	1	0	1	5	Rye,.....	0	5	0	7	Salt,.....	0	5	1	0	
Drygoods,.....	1	0	1	5	Salt,.....	0	5	1	0	Tallow,.....	0	3	0	6	
Earthenware,.....	0	4	0	6	Tallow,.....	0	3	0	6	Tar,.....	0	5	1	0	
Fish, salted,.....	0	3	0	6	Tar,.....	0	5	1	0	Tobacco, manufactu'd,	0	8	1	5	
Flour,*.....	0	4	0	7	Tobacco, manufactu'd,	0	8	1	5	do. not,.....	0	3	0	6	
Furs and Peltry, (ex- } cept deer & buffalo,) }	0	8	1	5	do. not,.....	0	3	0	6	Wheat,.....	0	5	0	8	
Glassware,.....	0	8	1	2	Wheat,.....	0	5	0	8	Whiskey,.....	0	5	0	6	
Groceries,.....	1	0	1	5	Whiskey,.....	0	5	0	6	Window Glass,.....	0	3	1	2	
Gypsum,.....	0	3	0	5	Window Glass,.....	0	3	1	2	Wool,.....	0	5	0	8	
Hardware,.....	0	5	1	5	Wool,.....	0	5	0	8						
Hemp,.....	0	3	0	6											
Hides, raw,.....	0	8	1	2											
Iron, castings and bl'm,	0	5	0	7											

* *Resolved*, That the collector of Philadelphia be directed to allow upon the presentation of the proper certificate, a drawback of twenty cents per barrel, on each and every barrel of flour arriving at his office, which shall have been cleared at Pittsburgh, and passed on the state improvements thence to Philadelphia. The said drawback to be credited to the transporter of such flour, on subsequent tolls accruing at the office.

NEW RUSSIAN TARIFF.

The following is a table of the new tariff, which gives a statement of the new import duties to be imposed by the Russian government upon the various articles mentioned below, and which came into operation the 1st of January, 1842. We also annex the old tariff, for the sake of comparison :—

		Old Duty.		New Duty.			
		Rub.	Cop.	Rub.	Cop.	Old Duty.	
						Rub.	Cop.
						New.	
						Rub.	C.
Coffee, per poood,*.....	6	12	6	15	Brazil, Nicaragua, San-		
Cotton wool,	0	25	7.8	0	ta Martha, Lima, Ja-		
Cotton yarn,.....	5	73	3.4	6	pan and Logwood, per		
Cochineal,.....	11	47	1.2	13	berko,.....	1	72 1.8 2 00
Indigo,	4	59		5	Fustic,.....	1	14 3.4 1 40
Quercitron Bark,.....	0	86		1	Lead, in pigs,.....	0	25 1.2 0 10
Tin, in blocks,.....	0	25	1.2	0	Cloth, half-cloth, kerseymere, ladies'		
Olive Oil,.....	1	72	1.8	1	cloth, tricot, of black, dark blue,		
Rice,.....	0	45	2.10	0	dark green, white, and bluish white		
Salt,	0	40	1.6	0	color, also with small white spots,		
Sugar,	3	21	3.10	3	hitherto prohibited,.....per pound	3	50

N. B.—The quarantine and additional duty will not be paid further, except on the old duties.

* A poood is equal to 36 pounds English.

STEAMBOAT, RAILROAD, AND CANAL STATISTICS.

PASSAGES OF THE CUNARD ROYAL MAIL STEAMERS.

It seems, by the Boston Transcript, that the royal mail steamers have, during the year, performed their trips agreeably to advertisements, without any interruption whatever, and consequently carried out the original plan of the line with the greatest success. The following table shows the time of arrival at Boston, and the length of the passage, (without deducting the time of detention at Halifax,) of each steamer, since the line commenced running, just a year and a half ago. It will be seen that they have made twenty-nine voyages, and the average time occupied in these passages is fourteen days and twenty-three hours.

Steamer.	Arrived.	Dys.	Hrs.	Steamer.	Arrived.	Dys.	Hrs.
Britannia,....	July 18, 1840, in	14	8	Acadia,.....	June 2, 1841, in	13	12
Acadia,.....	August 17, " in	12	12	Columbia,...	June 17, " in	12	02
Britannia,....	Sept. 17, " in	13	12	Britannia,....	July 3, " in	13	12
Caledonia,...	Oct. 2, " in	13	00	Caledonia,...	July 17, " in	13	01
Acadia,.....	Oct. 17, " in	12	12	Acadia,.....	August 2, " in	12	14
Britannia,....	Nov. 3, " in	13	12	Columbia,...	August 19, " in	14	18
Caledonia,...	Nov. 19, " in	14	22	Britannia,....	Sept. 2, " in	13	14
Acadia,.....	Dec. 21, " in	16	22	Caledonia,...	Sept. 18, " in	13	18
Columbia,...	Jan. 21, 1841, in	16	15	Acadia,.....	Oct. 5, " in	16	03
Britannia,....	Feb. 22, " in	17	12	Columbia,...	Oct. 21, " in	15	18
Caledonia,...	March 20, " in	15	20	Britannia,....	Nov. 7, " in	17	00
Acadia,.....	April 7, " in	18	12	Caledonia,...	Nov. 18, " in	14	06
Columbia,...	April 21, " in	15	00	Acadia,.....	Dec. 7, " in	18	02
Britannia,....	May 6, " in	15	10	Columbia,...	Dec. 21, " in	16	21
Caledonia,...	May 19, " in	14	12				

CLOSING OF THE ERIE CANAL, FROM 1824 TO 1841.

In 1824, it closed	December 4th.	In 1833, it closed	December 12th.
1825, " "	December 5th.	1834, " "	December 12th.
1826, " "	December 13th.	1835, " "	November 30th.
1827, " "	December 18th.	1836, " "	November 26th.
1828, " "	December 20th.	1837, " "	December 9th.
1829, " "	December 17th.	1838, " "	November 25th.
1830, " "	December 17th.	1839, " "	December 16th.
1831, " "	December 1st.	1840, " "	about Dec. 1st.
1832, " "	December 21st.	1841, " "	November 28th.

WEST INDIA STEAM PACKETS.

The new line of British mail steam packets between Great Britain, the West India Islands, South America, and the United States, is now in operation, as appears by the following :—

The British steamship Forth, Lieut. Fayrer, R.N., Com., arrived at Havana on the 12th Jan. from Southampton, via St. Thomas, in 25 days from the former, and 5 days from the latter port, and would leave again on the 16th for the Belize, Mississippi River, Tampico, and Vera Cruz.

The Barbadoes Gazette of the 6th Jan. announces the arrival of the Solway from Southampton, being one of four that left that port, for different points, on the same day as the Forth, the arrival of which at Havana we have already noticed.

The following is the arrangement from Havana to the North American ports :—
Havana and North American Stations, starting from Havana at 2 P. M. of the 7th, when the month has 30 days.

STARTING PORT OR PLACE.	Distance in Geo- graphical Miles.	Knots per Hour.	Time on Voyage.	Stoppages for Mails, etc.
			Hours.	Hours.
Havana to Nassau,.....	360	10	36
Stop at Nassau,.....				8
Nassau to Savannah,.....	460	10	46
Stop at Savannah,.....				5
Savannah to Charleston,.....	85	9	10
Stop at Charleston,.....				6
Charleston to New York,.....	610	8½	72
Stop at New York,.....				2
New York to Halifax,.....	520	8½	61
Stop at Halifax,.....				96
Halifax to New York,.....	520	8½	61
Stop at New York,.....				32
New York to Charleston,.....	610	8½	72
Stop at Charleston,.....				6
Charleston to Savannah,.....	85	9	10
Stop at Savannah,.....				5
Savannah to Nassau,.....	460	9	51
Stop at Nassau,.....				6
Nassau to Havana,.....	360	9	38
Stop at Havana,.....				75
TOTAL,.....	4,050	89	457	263

RAILROADS TERMINATING AT ATLANTIC PORTS.

The following statement, prepared by Edwin Williams, shows the number of continuous miles of railroad, now in operation in the United States, terminating at the different Atlantic ports :—

Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.
New York,..... 12	Boston,..... 720	Bridgeport, 73	Wilmington, 162
Piermont,..... 46	Providence,..... 41	Philadelphia, 369	Charleston,..... 312
Jersey City,..... 119	Stonington, 47	Baltimore,..... 300	Savannah, 137
Amboy,..... 61	Norwich,..... 58	Norfolk, 78	
Brooklyn,..... 40	New Haven,..... 35	Richm'd & Pabg, 287	

It will be seen from the above how much remains to be done in New York, to place the city on an equality with other Atlantic cities, with regard to railroads. The New York and Erie railroads will, when completed, connect with a chain of railroads, most

of which are now in progress, through Ohio to Cincinnati, making a continuous line of nearly 900 miles, as follows:—

	Miles.
New York and Erie Railroad, Piermont to Dunkirk,.....	446
Dunkirk to Erie,	45
Erie to Cleveland,.....	90
Cleveland to Cincinnati, by several lines of railroad,.....	300
TOTAL, Hudson River to Cincinnati,.....	881

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCIAL RESOURCES OF THE UNITED STATES.

MINES—AGRICULTURE—COMMERCE—PRODUCTS OF THE FOREST—FISHERIES—MANUFACTURES—
VALUE OF MANUFACTURED GOODS, ETC.

We have made arrangements for the tabular statements of the products of the United States, according to the census of 1840, which we shall publish in detail in future numbers of the *Merchants' Magazine*. The following summary from them, which gives the total results, and which will convey to readers generally a better view than the tables themselves, was compiled by the industrious editor of Hazard's United States Statistical Register.

MINES.

Iron—Cast— Number of furnaces,.....	804
Tons produced,.....	286,903
Bar— Number of bloomeries, forges, and rolling mills,.....	795
Tons produced,.....	197,233
Tons of fuel consumed,.....	1,528,110
Number of men employed, including mining operations,.....	30,497
Capital invested,.....	\$20,432,131
Lead— Number of smelting houses, counting each fire one,.....	120
Number of pounds produced,.....	31,239,453
Number of men employed,.....	1,017
Capital invested,.....	\$1,346,756
Gold— Number of smelting houses,.....	157
Value produced,.....	\$529,605
Number of men employed,.....	1,046
Capital invested,.....	\$234,325
Other Metals— Value produced,.....	\$370,614
Number of men employed,.....	728
Capital invested,.....	\$238,980
Coal—Anthracite— Tons raised, (28 bushels each,).....	863,489
Number of men employed,.....	3,043
Capital invested,.....	\$4,355,602
Bituminous— Number of bushels raised,.....	27,603,191
Men employed,.....	3,768
Capital invested,.....	\$1,868,862
Domestic Salt— Number of bushels produced,.....	6,179,174
Men employed,.....	2,365
Capital invested,.....	\$6,998,045
Granite, Marble, and other Stones— Value produced,.....	\$3,695,884
Number of men employed,.....	7,859
Capital invested,.....	\$2,540,159

AGRICULTURE.

Live Stock— Horses and Mules,.....	4,335,669
Neat Cattle,.....	14,971,586
Sheep,.....	19,311,374
Swine,.....	26,301,293
Poultry of all kinds—estimated value,.....	\$9,344,410

Cereal Grains —Number of bushels of Wheat,.....	84,823,272
“ “ Barley,.....	4,161,504
“ “ Oats,.....	123,071,341
“ “ Rye,.....	18,645,567
“ “ Buckwheat,.....	7,291,743
“ “ Indian Corn,.....	377,531,875
Various Crops —Number of pounds of Wool,.....	35,802,114
“ “ Hops,.....	1,238,502
“ “ Wax,.....	628,303½
Bushels of Potatoes,.....	108,298,060
Tons of Hay,.....	10,248,108½
“ Hemp and Flax,.....	95,251½
Tobacco, Cotton, Sugar, &c. —Pounds of Tobacco gathered,.....	219,163,319
“ Rice,.....	80,841,422
“ Cotton gathered,.....	790,479,275
“ Silk Cocoons,.....	61,552½
“ Sugar made,.....	155,100,809
Cords of Wood sold,.....	5,088,891
Value of the Produce of the Dairy,.....	\$33,787,008
“ “ Orchard,.....	\$7,256,904
Gallons of Wine made,.....	124,734
Value of home made or family goods,.....	\$29,023,380
Horticulture —Value of produce of Market Gardeners,.....	\$2,601,196
“ “ Nurseries and Florists,.....	\$593,534
Number of men employed,.....	8,553
Capital invested,.....	\$2,945,774

COMMERCE.

Number of commercial houses in foreign trade,.....	1,108
“ “ “ commission business,.....	2,881
Capital invested,.....	\$119,295,367
Retail dry goods, grocery, and other stores,.....	57,565
Capital invested,.....	\$250,301,799
Lumber yards and trade,.....	1,793
Capital invested,.....	\$9,848,307
Number of men employed,.....	35,963
Internal transportation—Number of men employed,.....	17,594
Butchers, packers, &c.—Number of men employed,.....	4,808
Capital invested,.....	\$11,526,950

FISHERIES.

Number of Quintals smoked or dried fish,.....	773,947
“ Barrels pickled fish,.....	472,359½
“ Gallons spermaceti oil,.....	4,764,708
“ “ whale and other fish oil,.....	7,536,778
Value of Whalebone and other Productions of Fisheries,.....	\$1,153,234
Number of men employed,.....	36,584
Capital invested,.....	\$16,429,620

PRODUCTS OF THE FOREST.

Value of Lumber produced,.....	\$12,943,507
Barrels of Tar, Pitch, Turpentine, Rosin,.....	619,106
Tons of Pot and Pearl Ashes,.....	15,935½
Skins and Furs—Value produced,.....	\$1,065,869
Ginseng, and all other Productions of the Forest—Value,.....	\$526,580
Number of men employed,.....	22,042

MANUFACTURES.

Machinery —Value of Machinery manufactured,.....	\$10,980,581
Number of men employed,.....	13,001
Hardware, Cutlery, &c. —Value of manufactured,.....	\$6,451,967
Number of men employed,.....	5,492
Cannon and Small Arms —Number of Cannon cast,.....	274
Small Arms made.....	88,073
Men employed,.....	1,744
Precious Metals —Value manufactured,.....	\$4,734,960
Number of men employed,.....	1,556

<i>Various Metals</i> —Value manufactured,.....	\$9,779,442
Number of men employed,.....	6,677
<i>Granite, Marble, &c.</i> —Value manufactured,.....	\$2,442,950
Number of men employed,.....	3,734
<i>Bricks and Lime</i> —Value manufactured,.....	\$9,736,945
Number of men employed,.....	22,807
Capital invested in the preceding manufactures,.....	\$20,620,869
<i>Wool</i> —Number of fulling mills,.....	2,585
" woollen manufactories,.....	1,420
Value of manufactured goods,.....	\$20,696,999
Number of persons employed,.....	21,342
Capital invested,.....	\$15,765,124
<i>Cotton</i> —Number of cotton manufactories,.....	1,240
" spindles,.....	2,284,631
" dyeing and printing establishments,.....	129
Value of manufactured articles,.....	\$46,350,453
Number of persons employed,.....	72,119
Capital invested,.....	\$51,102,359
<i>Silk</i> —Number of pounds reeled, thrown, or other silk made,.....	15,745½
Value of the same,.....	\$119,814
Number of males employed,.....	246
" females and children,.....	521
Capital invested,.....	\$274,374
<i>Flax</i> —Value of manufactures of flax,.....	\$322,205
Number of persons employed,.....	1,628
Capital invested,.....	\$208,087
<i>Mixed Manufactures</i> —Value of produce,.....	\$6,545,503
Number of persons employed,.....	15,905
Capital invested,.....	\$4,368,991
<i>Tobacco</i> —Value of manufactured articles,.....	\$5,819,568
Number of persons employed,.....	8,384
Capital invested,.....	\$3,437,191
<i>Hats, Caps, Bonnets, &c.</i> —Value of hats and caps manufactured,.....	\$8,704,342
" straw bonnets manufactured,.....	\$1,476,505
Number of persons employed,.....	20,176
Capital invested,.....	\$4,485,300
<i>Leather, Tanneries, Saddleries, &c.</i> —Number of tanneries,.....	8,229
Sides of sole leather tanned,.....	3,463,611
" upper do. do.	3,781,868
Number of men employed,.....	26,018
Capital invested,.....	\$15,650,929
All other manufactures of leather, { saddleries, &c.....	17,136
Value of manufactured articles,....	\$33,134,403
Capital invested,.....	\$12,881,262
<i>Soap and Candles</i> —Number of pounds of soap,.....	49,820,497
" pounds of tallow candles,.....	17,904,507
" pounds of spermaceti and wax candles,....	2,936,951
" men employed,.....	5,641
Capital invested,.....	\$2,757,273
<i>Distilled and Fermented Liquors</i> —Number of distilleries,.....	10,306
" gallons produced,.....	41,402,627
" breweries,.....	406
" gallons produced,.....	23,267,730
" men employed,.....	12,223
Capital invested,.....	\$9,147,368
<i>Powder Mills</i> —Number of powder mills,.....	137
Pounds of gunpowder,.....	8,977,348
Number of men employed,.....	496
Capital invested,.....	\$875,875
<i>Drugs, Medicines, Paints, and Dyes</i> —Value of medicinal drugs, paints, &c. \$4,151,899	
" turp'ne and varnish produced,.....	\$660,827
Number of men employed,.....	1,848

<i>Drugs, Medicines, Paints, and Dyes</i> —Capital invested,.....	\$4,507,675
<i>Glass, Earthenware, &c.</i> —Number of glass houses,.....	81
Number of cutting establishments,.....	34
“ men employed,.....	3,236
Value of manufactured articles, includ'g look- ing glasses,.....	\$2,890,293
Capital invested,.....	\$2,084,100
Number of potteries,.....	659
Value of manufactured articles,.....	\$1,104,825
Number of men employed,.....	1,612
Capital invested,.....	\$551,431
<i>Sugar Refineries, Chocolate, &c.</i> —Number of sugar refineries,.....	43
Value of produce,.....	\$3,250,700
“ chocolate manufactured,.....	\$79,900
“ confectionary made,.....	\$1,143,965
Number of men employed,.....	1,355
Capital invested,.....	\$1,769,571
<i>Paper</i> —Number of paper manufactories,.....	426
Value of produce,.....	\$5,641,495
“ all other manufactures of paper, playing cards, &c.....	\$511,597
Number of men employed,.....	4,726
Capital invested,.....	\$4,745,239
<i>Printing and Binding</i> —Number of printing offices,.....	1,552
“ binderies,.....	447
“ daily newspapers,.....	138
“ weekly newspapers,.....	1,141
“ semi and tri-weekly newspapers,.....	125
“ periodicals,.....	227
Men employed,.....	11,523
Capital invested,.....	\$5,873,815
<i>Cordage</i> —Number of rope walks,.....	388
Value of produce,.....	\$4,078,306
Number of men employed,.....	4,464
Capital invested,.....	\$2,465,577
<i>Musical Instruments</i> —Value produced,.....	\$923,924
Number of men employed,.....	908
Capital invested,.....	\$734,370
<i>Carriages and Wagons</i> —Value produced,.....	\$10,897,887
Number of men employed,.....	21,994
Capital invested,.....	\$5,551,632
<i>Mills</i> —Number of flouring mills,.....	4,364
“ barrels of flour manufactured,.....	7,404,562
“ grist mills,.....	23,661
“ saw mills,.....	31,650
“ oil mills,.....	843
Value of manufactures,.....	\$76,545,946
Number of men employed,.....	60,788
Capital invested,.....	\$65,858,470
<i>Ships</i> —Value of ships and vessels built,.....	\$7,016,094
<i>Furniture</i> —Value of furniture made,.....	\$7,555,405
Number of men employed,.....	18,003
Capital invested,.....	\$6,989,971
<i>Houses</i> —Number of brick and stone houses built,.....	8,429
“ wooden houses built,.....	45,684
Men employed,.....	85,501
Value of constructing or building,.....	\$41,917,401
<i>All Other Manufactures Not Enumerated</i> —Value,.....	\$34,785,353
Capital invested,.....	\$25,019,726
Total capital invested in manufactures,.....	\$267,726,579

From the foregoing, we have formed the following table, showing, as far as practicable, the amount of capital invested in various branches of business, which, it appears, is \$716,089,256. The capital employed in agriculture is not given; neither is it in some other branches. At best it must be considered as incomplete, and probably inaccurate,

as this is a subject of inquiry, on which few persons feel disposed to furnish correct information. It is therefore, probably, only an approximation to the true amount of active capital employed.

In Iron business,.....	\$20,432,131	Hats, caps, and bonnets,.....	4,485,300
Lead "	1,346,756	Leather tanneries,.....	15,650,929
Gold "	234,325	" manufact'd and saddles,	12,881,262
Other metals,.....	238,980	Soap and candles,.....	2,757,273
Coal business—		Distilleries and breweries,.....	9,147,368
Anthracite,.....	\$4,355,602	Powder mills,.....	875,875
Bituminous,.....	1,868,862	Drugs, medic's, paints, and dyes,	4,507,675
	6,224,464	Glass,.....	2,084,100
Salt,.....	6,998,045	Earthenware, &c.....	551,431
Granite, Marble, and Stone,...	2,540,159	Sugar refineries and chocolate,	1,769,571
Nurseries,	2,945,774	Paper making,.....	4,745,239
Commer. and commis. houses,	119,295,367	Printing and binding,.....	5,873,815
Retail drygood and groc'y, &c.	250,301,799	Cordage,.....	2,465,577
Lumber yards and trade,.....	9,848,307	Making musical instruments,...	734,370
Butchers, packers, &c.....	11,526,950	" carriages and wagons,	5,551,632
Fisheries,	16,429,620	Mills,.....	65,858,470
Various manufactures,.....	20,620,869	Making furniture,	6,989,971
Woollen do.	15,765,124	All other manufactures,.....	25,019,726
Cotton do.	51,102,359	Total capital invested in manu-	
Silk do.	274,374	factures,	\$267,726,579
Flax do.	208,087		
Mixed do.	4,368,991	Total capital invested,...	\$716,089,256
Tobacco do.	3,437,191		

There is great reason to believe that much inaccuracy exists in the whole returns of the census, but such as it is, it affords gratifying evidence of the resources of our country.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

DISASTERS AT SEA DURING THE YEAR 1841.

We copy from the Sailors' Magazine the following summary of shipwrecks, &c., for 1841. Some of the vessels put down as "missing" were afterwards heard from, having been prematurely reported as such.

A record has been kept at the office of the American Seamen's Friend Society, during the year just closed, of disasters at sea, so far as they could be ascertained, which resulted in a "total loss" of the vessel. The greater part of them were wrecked on the coast of the United States, and the most of them were American vessels. The following is the result :—The whole number of vessels lost was 557—Of these there were—

Ships,	68	Schooners,	246
Barks,.....	47	Sloops,.....	21
Brigs,.....	130	Steamboats,.....	5
Unknown,.....	40		

Added to the above entire and known losses, there have been reported twenty-eight missing vessels during the year, which, with their crews, have most probably been entirely lost. Six hundred and fifty lives have been reported as lost, but the loss of life is undoubtedly much greater than this, as many vessels were reported as abandoned, or bottom up, where the crews were missing, and no intelligence has been received from them. The above facts speak a language concerning the perils of the sea, not to be misunderstood. The following statement exhibits the number of vessels and lives lost; also of missing vessels for five years preceding :—

	Vessels Lost.	Lives Lost.	Missing Vessels.
In 1840,.....	521	684	39
1839,.....	442	537	37
1838,.....	427	756	27
1837,.....	493	1295	30
1836,.....	316	826	12

SALVAGE TO THE FLORIDA WRECKERS.

The following is an account of the salvage decreed to the Florida wreckers during the year 1841 :—

March 16.—Brig Florida and cargo, appraised at \$18,252.....	\$3,650
March 25.—Cargo, &c., brig Candine, amount of sales, \$986.....	351
April 5.—Materials, &c., of ship Manchester, amount of sales, \$1,300.....	576
May 19.—Cargo, &c., brig Affleck, amount of sales, \$2,374.....	781
May 20.—Brig Leander and cargo, amount of sales, \$19,360.....	6,831
May 31.—Ship Mississippi and cargo appraised at \$100,058.....	14,698
June 1.—Ship Ganges and cargo, estimated at \$49,008.....	15,894
October 30.—Brig Ada Eliza and cargo, appraised at \$12,002.....	5,400
November 2.—Cargo, &c., of schooner Columbia, amount of sales, \$8,386.....	2,935
Bark Theodore Korner and cargo, decided at Savannah, appraised at \$19,000	5,000
December 11.—Schr. Boston Packet and cargo, amount of sales, \$2,398.....	857
Amount decreed,.....	\$56,973

To this add cases arbitrated :—

Brig Louise, nett sales, \$1,984.....	\$820
Schooner Coral and cargo, estimated \$2,600.....	1,040
Schooner January and cargo, estimated \$1,800.....	600
Bark Henry Woolley and cargo, estimated value after paying duties } and expenses, \$34,631.....	9,696
Brig Primavera and cargo, estimated at \$8,500.....	850
Brig Jasper and cargo, appraised at \$5,500.....	2,000
Amount awarded by arbitrators,.....	\$15,006

TOTAL,.....\$71,979

The following exhibits the annual amount of salvages decided at Key West, for the ten years preceding :—

1831,.....	\$39,487	1837,.....	107,495
1832,.....	46,555	1838,.....	34,578
1833,.....	38,128	1839,.....	90,797
1834,.....	32,042	1840,.....	85,113
1835,.....	87,249	1841,.....	56,973
1836,.....	174,132		

The above amounts are not entirely correct in all cases, salvages being sometimes given in kind, so as to allow only an approximation to their money value; they are generally, however, not far out of the way. The salvages for the years 1839, 1840, and 1841, were decreed by our present judge; prior to 1839, they were decreed by Judge Webb.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE RISE AND FALL OF LAKE ERIE.

The Buffalo Commercial Advertiser gives the following observations on the rise and fall of Lake Erie, at Fairport, Ohio, from 1838.

Greatest depression of the lake or lowest stage of water is in February, and the greatest height about the 6th of July of each year.

The highest water known was in 1838, measured in February, from which the following heights are taken :—

February 6, 1840, measured and found the lake had fallen since February, 1838, two years,.....	26 inches.
Rising from that date same year to July 6,.....	20 "
Falling from July 6 to August 6,.....	3½ inches.
" " to September 28,.....	6½ "
" " to February 22, 1841,.....	16 " 26 "
" " 6 inches lower to add,.....	6 "
	—
	or 32 inches.

February 22, 1841, found the lake had fallen 6 inches in the last year, as above, since 1838, a period of three years.

Rising from February to April 1,.....	6 inches.
" " to July 6,.....	10 " — 16 inches.
And falling from July 6 to August 6,.....	4 inches.
" " to September 6,.....	4 "
" " October 6,.....	5 "
" " November 6,.....	3 "
" " December 6,.....	0 "
" " January 6,.....	0 " — 16 inches,
or winter level, — 32 inches.	

It is now judged to be from 12 to 18 inches above the lowest water mark, by the oldest residents of Buffalo.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1. *On the Beauties, Harmonies, and Sublimities of Nature ; with Notes, Commentaries, and Illustrations.* By CHARLES BUCKE, author of "Ruined Cities," &c. &c. (Vol. 145 Harpers' Family Library.)

We have seldom read a book in which the pleasing and the useful were so admirably blended and combined as in this volume. The author has brought to the illustration of his subject, facts the most curious, entertaining and varied, collected from every quarter, and has embellished the whole with the creations of a lively fancy, rich classical allusions, and moral inferences no less just than beautiful. The beauties and sublimities of nature are presented in their most impressive features, in points of view singularly striking and novel, and in connection with associations that impart to them new interest, and additional power to instruct and gratify. The concluding article, on a future state of being, as the grand result distinctly indicated by all that is witnessed around us, is particularly fine.

- 2.—*Essays on Property and Labor, as connected with Natural Law and the Constitution of Society.* By FRANCIS LIEBER. (Vol. 146 Harpers' Family Library.)

A just estimation of the principles regulating the rights of property and labor in their various relations is at the foundation of morals no less than of legislation. The subject is, therefore, one of very great importance, and we are the more gratified to see a writer so competent as Dr. Lieber devoting himself to its consideration, from the conviction that very erroneous views are somewhat extensively entertained in relation to this subject at the present day. There is much in this treatise that is calculated to set us right where we have been led away from first principles by delusive theories, and to establish those principles more firmly where they are already admitted and correctly understood.

- 3.—*Ahasuerus ; a Poem.* By A VIRGINIAN. New York : Harper & Brothers. 1842.

We have been agreeably disappointed in this artless versification of a well-known legend—that of the accursed Jew who spat upon Jesus on the cross, and received from him the sentence "Tarry till I come." There are many beautiful thoughts, many sweet verses, many original and gorgeous figures, many true and holy sentiments. The epical form and prosy measure which the author has chosen, no less than the subject itself, have interposed obstacles in the way of his complete success. Still there is unequivocal merit in it, no ordinary power of fancy, and no common ability at description. If "Ahasuerus" cannot take its place in the highest walk of the divine art, it never sinks to the lowest, and may content itself with bearing on its fair pages pleasure, instruction, and comfort to a discerning and candid public.

- 4.—*Norway and the Norwegians ; or, Feats on the Fiord : a tale.* By HARRIET MARTINEAU, author of "The Peasant and the Prince," "Settlers at Home," &c. 18mo. pp. 180. New York : D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

- 5.—*Which is the Wiser ? or, People Abroad : a tale for youth.* By MARY HOWITT, author of "Strive and Thrive," "Hope On, Hope Ever," "Sowing and Reaping," "Who shall be Greatest ?" &c. 18mo. pp. 184. New York : D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

These two volumes form the 14th and 15th of Appleton's admirable collection of "Tales for the People and their Children," a series of juvenile books which we cannot too highly commend.

- 6.—*An Introduction to Legal Science*; being a Concise and Familiar Treatise on such Legal Subjects as are earliest read by the Law Student; should be generally taught in the higher Seminaries of Learning, and understood by every Citizen, as a part of a General and Business Education. To which is added, A Concise Dictionary of Law Terms and Phrases. By SILAS JONES, Counsellor at Law. New York: John S. Voorhies. 1842.

The copious titlepage quoted furnishes a very good idea of the comprehensive treatise before us. The object of the author in preparing this work, as we are informed in his preface, was to produce a book which could be both read and studied, not merely for those destined for the legal profession, but by those also who, without the stimulus of professional predilections, have simply the desire to give such attention to the leading topics of law as belong to general and business education. The author has relieved the subject of its dryness, not by shunning its technicalities of language, but by using and defining them in such connections as will enable general readers to understand them. The work is written in a plain, perspicuous, and spirited style; its subject matter judiciously selected and well-arranged; and treated in a manner at once interesting and instructive. The dictionary appended to the work is not the least valuable portion of it; and, containing as it does, a brief but pertinent dictionary of most of the legal terms and phrases in ordinary use, it will be found exceedingly valuable to the general reader.

- 7.—*Laws of the State of New York, of a General Nature, passed from 1823 to 1841, inclusive*; all acts relating to the same subject classified and brought together under their appropriate heads. Selected and arranged, with references to judicial decisions. By A COUNSELLOR AT LAW. Rochester, N. Y.: Thomas H. Hyatt. 1841.

This work is particularly valuable to the lawyer, and one which we think few will fail to purchase. His library may contain the entire volumes of statutes passed during the years comprised in the book before us, and yet this will be useful to him from the fact that containing as it does, all the laws of general application or interest, together with a copious and well-arranged index, he is enabled to find any act with much more ease and facility than he would if compelled to search through the pages of a dozen volumes. And to those who cannot well afford to buy all the statutes passed during the period we have mentioned, we need hardly say that this work, the cost of which is but trifling, is invaluable. The only objection existing against it is, that courts, we suppose, will not receive it as evidence of statutes it contains, from the fact that they are not compiled and published under the sanction of the state legislature. But this is one comparatively trifling, for it is equally valuable as a book of reference—equally useful to the lawyer in his office. Its mechanical execution is good; and as it is a work perfectly novel in its plan, and really of great value to the bar, and to those who may sometimes find it necessary to refer to some among the multitude of laws with which our statute books are crowded, we recommend it as deserving of an extensive sale.

- 8.—*Personal Recollections*. By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH. From the London edition. 12mo. pp. 303. New York: John S. Taylor & Co. 1842.

The writings of Charlotte Elizabeth consist principally of religious tales, which have obtained an extensive circulation among a large class of Christians of the popular creed, both in England and America; and these autobiographical notices of her life and opinions will enable her numerous readers to gain an insight into the peculiarities of her character, and will be read with interest by her admirers.

- 9.—*Grandfather's Chair*; A History for Youth. 18mo. pp. 139.

- 10.—*Famous Old People*; being the Second Epoch of "Grandfather's Chair." 18mo. pp. 158.

- 11.—*Liberty Tree*; with the Last Words of "Grandfather's Chair." 18mo. pp. 156. Boston: Tappan & Dennet. 1842.

Nathaniel Hawthorne, the author of these "ponderous tomes," describes the eminent characters and remarkable events of our New England early annals, in a form and style that cannot fail to attract the attention of the young, and make them acquainted with them of their own accord. While, therefore, ostensibly relating the adventures of a chair, he keeps a distinct and unbroken thread of authentic history. Setting aside grandfather and his auditors, and excepting the adventures of the chair, which form the machinery of the books, and the license of filling up the outline of history with details from imaginative authority, they contain nothing that will violate or give a false coloring to the truth of history.

12.—*Discourses on Human Life.* By ORVILLE DEWEY, Pastor of the Church of the Messiah, New York. New York: David Felt & Co. 1841.

This series of sermons, presented by a pastor to his people on account of his separation from them by ill health, is remarkable on a great many accounts. In the first place, because of their catholicity of sentiment and doctrine: there is not a word in this volume which would not receive the hearty "Amen!" of every good person of every sect. Much he venerated might be absent; but nothing could be found to disturb a Sabbath hour, or strike the jarring note of theological controversy. In the second place, these discourses treat of topics never hardly considered in the pulpit—never before discussed in a similar way—and yet lying at the foundation of all practical Christianity. The seventh sermon, "The School of Life," affords one of the happiest specimens of this distinguished preacher's style; and, at the same time, novel as its form is, stands impregnable in its general proposition upon the unassailable reasoning of Butler. Again, these sermons are remarkable, and cannot fail of awakening an unusual interest for productions of the class, in casting aside all the usual modes of pulpit address; all the mechanical forms of sermonizing; all the shackles which have bound down to a Samson's prison-floor so many rich minds, and sustaining a lofty, profound, and original course of eloquent argument upon some of the most interesting themes of thought and most important walks of duty.

13.—*An Offering of Sympathy to the Afflicted, especially to Parents bereaved of their Children.* Boston: James Munroe & Co.

The number of editions this work has passed through in this country and in England show that it has met a living want. The circumstances of its first publication are exceedingly interesting: the infant child of a venerable Boston clergyman was allowed by its nurse to encounter a death of extreme agony. In the distress occasioned by this affliction, the happy thought occurred of ministering through his own experience to the consolations of others; and this volume was collected from various devotional works, and from the pulpit efforts of the neighboring clergy. Channing, Walker, Greenwood, Furness, Peabody, and others of the most distinguished in the ranks of "liberal Christianity," have made rich offerings, both in prose and verse, on this altar of sympathy; and from some knowledge of the comfort it has afforded to the bereaved, we cordially recommend this work as one of the best of the kind—one deserving a cordial welcome to every house and every heart. The variety of thought and expression, and yet the perfect harmony of tone and feeling which marks this spiritual wreath for a Christian cemetery, will make it live and bloom as long as sorrow is known.

14.—*Familiar Dialogues and Discussions*; for Exhibition in Schools and Academies of either Sex, and for the Amusement of Social Parties. By WILLIAM B. FOWLE, teacher of a young ladies' school in Boston. 12mo. pp. 286. Boston: Tappan & Dennet. 1841.

Aside from the value of this excellent collection of dialogues for schools and academies, we have been agreeably entertained with the perusal of several of the discussions, most of which are original. "The Town Meeting for the Discussion of Slavery," and "The Meeting of Ladies to Discuss the Rights of Woman," are admirable hits at the times, and popular assemblies the world over.

15.—*Robin Hood, and his Merry Foresters.* By STEPHEN PERCY, author of "Tales of the Kings of England." 16mo. New York: J. & H. G. Langley. 1842.

Who has not read this famous old ballad? This is the first time, however, that an attempt has been made to adapt the legend to the popular taste by rendering it intelligible to youth. The adventures and exploits of this renowned hero are presented in the narrative form, introducing portions of the original ballad, and that of Robin Hood and the Ranger, the whole being illustrated by eight colored drawings.

16.—*Tales of Shipwrecks and other Disasters at Sea.* By THOMAS BINGLEY, author of "Stories about Dogs," &c. 18mo. pp. 224.

This little volume contains the adventures of Falconer; the wreck of the Vryheid, the Albion, and the Medusa; mutiny of the Bounty; loss of the Kent, the Winterton, East Indiamen, the Royal George, &c.; related by "Uncle Thomas," after the attractive manner of Peter Parley.

- 17.—*Twice-Told Tales*. By NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE. 2 vols. Boston: J. Munroe & Co. 1842.

Nathaniel Hawthorne needs no praise of ours; in the light and brief sketches which are his chief delight, he has no peer; in the successful portraiture of the finer traits of character, as in the "Gentle Boy," his masterpiece, he fears no rival. His tales renew the joy of our youth over the delightful sketches of Irving; and like them, touch the better feelings, and lead us on to the love of virtue for Virtue's self. Hardly one of his pieces but has some rich lesson hidden among its sweet flowers; not one but breathes a wholesome and healing moral atmosphere. Yet, more graceful, modest, and delicate utterances of holy sentiment were never made. It is like the heart of a sister or mother exhaling a blessed atmosphere around us. The first of these volumes has been for some time before the public; but the second is new in its collective capacity, and deserves a resting place on every family bookshelf, and in every true and pure heart throughout the land. Four of its pieces are legends connected with the early history of the country, simple in themselves, but no way unworthy of the highest artistical genius.

- 18.—*Sketches of New England; or, Memoirs of the Country*. By JOHN CARVER, Esq., Jan. of the Peace and Quorum. 12mo. pp. 286. New York: E. French. 1842.

These sketches are from the pen of a legitimate son of New England, who boasts his descent direct from one of those stern old Puritans who chartered the Mayflower. Born on the banks of one of her beautiful rivers, and nurtured among her mountains, and residing in each of her states, his opportunities of knowing her inhabitants were certainly neither few nor small. His description of manners is therefore of what he has seen, and his delineations of character are drawn from life. The volume contains fifteen sketches, five of which were originally published in the Knickerbocker, where they gained high and deserved encomiums from the editors of public journals, and met with a favorable reception from the community.

- 19.—*Annals of the Poor*. By the Rev. LEAH RICHMOND. 12mo. pp. 238. New York: J. & H. G. Langley.

The popularity of this little work has been scarcely inferior to that of Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress." The narratives, which are founded in fact, possess a deep and thrilling interest, so that whether for entertainment merely, or as a vehicle of religious instruction, it would be difficult, perhaps, to find its superior.

- 20.—*Beauties of Rev. John Wesley, A.M.*; containing the most interesting passages, selected from his whole works: with a memoir of his life, and the particulars of his will. 18mo. pp. 212. New York: J. S. Redfield. 1842.

- 21.—*The Golden Grove; A Choice Manual*, containing what is to be Believed, Practised, and Desired, or Prayed for; the prayers being fitted for the several days of the week. To which is added, A Guide for the Penitent, or A Model drawn up for the Help of Devout Souls wounded with Sin: also, Festival Hymns, &c. 18mo. pp. 155. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

- 22.—*The Jacquerie; a Novel*. By G. P. R. JAMES, Esq., author of "The Gipsy," "The Ancient Régime," "The Gentleman of the Old School," &c. 2 vols. 12mo. New York: Harper & Brothers.

- 23.—*The Benevolent Merchant; or, The Dealings of God in Providence and Grace*. A narrative intended to guide young disciples in forming a right judgment of the Divine purpose in the various events of human life. By M. N. 18mo. pp. 220. New York: Dayton & Saxton. Boston: Saxton & Pierce. 1842.

- 24.—*A National Bank or No Banks; an Appeal to the People of the United States, especially of the Laboring Classes*. By JOHN R. HURD. 8vo pp. 104. New York: W. E. Dean and Dean & Trevett.

- 25.—*The Library of Commerce; Practical, Theoretical, and Historical*. By FREEMAN HURT, Editor Merchants' Magazine. Vol. I.—Part 1:—Sketch of the Commercial Intercourse of the World with China. 12mo. pp. 108. New York: Office of the Merchants' Magazine. 1842.

HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

APRIL, 1842.

ART. I.—CONSULAR SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES.

ORIGIN OF CONSULS—POWERS AND DUTIES OF CONSULS—FEES—IMPERFECTIONS OF THE SYSTEM—PROPOSED IMPROVEMENTS.

THE institution of consuls is said to have had its origin about the 12th century, in the exigences of the commercial states of Italy. The active trade carried on by Venice and Genoa with every part of the then known world, demanded the surveillance and protection of public commercial agents resident in the barbarous and semi-civilized parts of the Mediterranean, and a regular consular system was soon universally established. As early as the thirteenth century all the mercantile communities of the Mediterranean had consuls resident in the ports to which they traded, but it was not until several years later that the institution was adopted into the commercial system of the northern nations of Europe. Macpherson in his "Annals of Commerce" asserts that the earliest notice of the office of consul, in any English record, is dated 1346, but it was probably much later that it was generally established, as it is said by Warden, in his "Consular Establishments," that in the catalogue of the offices bestowed in the year 1633, the name of John Stare is mentioned as having been appointed consul-general for the kingdom of Portugal, which is the first instance of that office in Portugal to be found. At the commencement of our government, we adopted the then consular system of the mother country, which, with a few slight modifications in the consular duties and powers, has been with all its faults and imperfections continued to the present time.

The institution of consuls is one of most extensive utility. In fact when we consider the number of such offices and the important functions which they perform, it is not too much to assert that they form by far the most important part of the means by which the relations of our people with other countries are maintained. Deputed to watch over the commercial rights and privileges of the nation, the consular corps has intrusted to it the highest interests, and exercises a more important influence upon our mercantile prosperity—the basis of our national greatness—than those agents of the government who are more strictly styled the *corps diplomatique*. They are also pre-eminently the representatives of our national

character and manners. Scattered throughout the whole world, occupying an eminent social position in all the mercantile cities of every nation, and performing duties which more or less bring them into collision with the people among whom they reside, it is to be expected that they will exert an influence upon the opinions formed of us and our government, and by their conduct and manners very much add to or detract from the national dignity of the country they represent. Many important duties other than those of a mere commercial agent, frequently demand their attention. They are by their position the protectors and advisers of American citizens of all classes and conditions; and it may be asserted, without fear of contradiction, that there has been no American traveller in foreign countries who has not been indebted to consuls, if not for services, at least for useful and gratifying civilities. It is their duty, also, to furnish our government with statistical and other information, to discover and point out any obstacles to our trade, and to suggest any thing whereby it may be increased.

In view of the important functions performed by the consular corps, it may reasonably be asked, whether the present system is the best that could be adopted? Whether it is fitted to carry out to the fullest extent all the purposes for which it was intended? The question has been repeatedly asked, and universally answered in the negative, but nothing has hitherto been done to remedy the glaring defects. In 1833, the attention of congress was called to the subject in an able report by Edward Livingston, then secretary of state, but without effect. Since then the subject has been repeatedly broached in and out of congress, but it does not seem to attract the attention it deserves. It is especially singular in this case that some action has not been had, not because the evils to be removed have been long known to exist, and the expediency of some modification has been universally acknowledged, but because there are none of those petty interests which so commonly impede legislation in the way of the desired reformation. The defects and imperfections to which we allude, and the remedies which have been suggested, we will speak of more in detail after the following summary of the powers and duties of consuls, as laid down in acts of congress, and in the "*general instructions to consuls and commercial agents of the United States.*"

A consul having received notice of his appointment, is required to execute a bond, with sureties, who shall be certified to be sufficient by the district attorney of the United States, for the district in which he resides. This bond he has to forward to the department of state, when, if he receives no notice that any further security is required of him, he takes up his commission and departs for the port allotted to him, giving notice to the department of the time of departure and the vessel in which he embarks.

Arrived at his destined port, he must transmit his commission to the minister of the United States to the government under which he resides, in order to obtain the usual exequatur. He then takes possession of the consular seal and archives, making a minute inventory of all the papers and property which comes into his possession, and apprising the department, and other United States consuls in the same country, of his having entered upon the duties of his office.

The books required to be kept in each consulate, are a letter-book, in which are to be copied all official notes and letters other than those addressed to the department of state; a book of correspondence with the de-

partment of state ; and a record-book, for protests and all other consular acts. The letters to the department are directed to be plainly written upon foolscap paper, having an inch margin all round, and to be enclosed in an envelope. These rules are essential for the proper preservation and binding of the despatches in the department of state. Accounts are transmitted in communications devoted exclusively to such accounts, and all despatches are required to be numbered from the commencement.

Upon the arrival of an American vessel at any foreign port, it is the duty of the master of the vessel to deliver up his register and sea letter to the consul, who shall deposit them in a safe place until the vessel has obtained her clearance, when they are to be returned to the master. For a non-compliance with this regulation the master is liable to a fine of five hundred dollars; and it is made the duty of the consul, in case the master neglects to deliver up his ship papers, to apprise him of the necessity of so doing, by showing him the law that requires it, and prescribes the penalty in case of his refusal or neglect. The master is not to receive his papers again, if he refuses to comply with the provisions of the law which requires him, if any seamen are discharged, to pay three months' wages to such of them as appear by the shipping articles to be American citizens; or if there are any destitute seamen in the port, and the vessel is returning to the United States, the master must take such seamen on board as he shall be requested to by the consul, not exceeding two seamen for every hundred tons burden of the vessel, and on terms not exceeding ten dollars each man. The consul has also a right to retain the ship's papers in default of the payment of his fees for authenticating, under the consular seal, any act whatever which may be made by the master, or at his request, for the concerns of the vessel or its owners, and also for granting a certificate of the discharge of a seaman. These are the only two instances in which, for the payment of fees, he is authorized to detain a ship's papers. For all other dues the consul may require payment at the time the service is performed.

It is the duty of consuls to provide for destitute American sailors who may be found within their districts, and to procure for them a passage to the United States. The relief provided is at the expense of the United States, and includes board, lodging, and medical attendance, and clothing when necessary; all to be on the most reasonable scale, consistent with the comfort and proper support of the individual.

In case of the death of an American citizen, without any legal representative, any partner in trade, or trustee to take care of his effects, it is the duty of the consul to take possession of his property, dispose of such parts as are of a perishable nature, or are necessary to pay his debts, and within one year after the death of the intestate transmit the residue of the estate unsold, and the balance in money, after paying all debts and charges, to the treasury of the United States, to be holden in trust for the legal claimants, they not having in the mean time made their demands upon the consul himself. In the performance of his duties in the case of persons dying intestate, a number of minor rules and regulations in relation to inventories and appraisements of property, sales by auction, and the transmission of accounts and moneys, have been established by congress, but which it is useless here to particularize.

In the case of wrecks, congress has ordered that consuls "shall, as far as the laws of the country permit, take proper measures as well for saving

such vessels, their cargoes and appurtenances, as for storing and securing the merchandise saved, and for taking an inventory and inventories thereof; and the merchandise and effects saved, with the inventory and inventories, shall, after deducting therefrom the expense, be delivered to the owner or owners." This duty however is to be performed only in those cases where the master, owner, or consignee are not present or able to take charge of the property.

A duty that consuls are not unfrequently called upon to perform, is to grant passports to American citizens under their signature and consular seal. To grant such a passport to a person not an American citizen, knowing him to be so, is an offence punishable by a fine of one hundred dollars and deprivation of office. For granting certificates that property known by the consul to belong to aliens, is property of citizens of the United States, a much higher penalty is incurred. The offence is punishable with a fine not exceeding ten thousand dollars and three years imprisonment.

Besides these specific duties as prescribed by statute, there are a great many others incidental to their position and the relation in which they are placed to the authorities and people of the place in which they reside, or which arise from general custom of the establishment, or the instructions of the state and treasury departments: such as the obligation to collect and forward to the government any information that will facilitate commerce; to refrain from any unnecessary disputes with their own countrymen, or the authorities of the country; to support their countrymen against oppression and injustice, but to refrain from giving them aid when wilfully guilty of an infraction of the laws, &c.

The fees allowed for consular services, as established by law, are as follows:

"For authenticating under the consular seal every protest, declaration, deposition, or other act which captains, masters, marines, seamen, passengers, merchants or others, as are citizens of the United States, may respectively choose to make, the sum of two dollars.

"For taking into possession, inventorying and finally settling and paying, or transmitting according to law, the balance due the personal estate of any citizen who shall die within the limits of a consulate, five per cent upon the gross amount of such estate. If part of such estate shall be delivered over before a final settlement, two and a half per cent is allowed on the part so delivered as is not in money, and five per cent on the gross amount of the residue.

"For granting a certificate of the delivery of merchandise under the revenue laws, one dollar; and for administering the oath, twenty-five cents.

"For every verification and certificate of an invoice, two dollars. But every shipper shall have a right to include all articles shipped by him, in the same invoice.

"For every certificate of discharge of any seaman in a foreign port, fifty cents.

"And for receiving and paying the amount of wages due on such discharge, two and a half per cent.

"On the deposit of a ship's papers, the consul gives a certificate thereof under seal, and on returning them a like certificate, for which he is entitled to two dollars each; making the whole of the fees for the deposit and delivery of the papers, four dollars."

No other fees are allowed for the services enumerated, but if American citizens or others require other services, they may be charged at the rate allowed to notaries in the same place for the same services.

From the foregoing summary it will be readily perceived that the office of consul is one of the highest responsibility; that the duties are diversified and frequently onerous, and that they require for their performance much judgment, industry, observation, temper, and general as well as judicial knowledge. But it is impossible to obtain these qualities to any great extent under the present system. For a very large portion of the consulates, the government has not the power of choosing among competent men, who have no inducement to accept offices the fees of which are not half adequate to a decent living. The defects of the system are, as we have before said, obvious, and have been frequently pointed out. They are also easily remedied, and it is to be hoped that congress will before long take the subject into consideration, and effect the proposed reformati-
ons, which will more than double the efficiency of the establishment, and render it subservient, not merely to the little details of mercantile operations, but to the higher interests of our world-covering commerce.

One of the most glaring faults of our system is the appointment of merchants engaged in business in the ports where they reside, to the office. The greater part of the United States consuls are commission merchants, actively employed in the engrossing competition of trade. Looking upon the office that they fill only as a means of facilitating and increasing their business, it is impossible that its duties should be properly performed. In the words of the secretary's report, to which we have alluded, "in many, perhaps in the greater number of cases, the place is sought for chiefly for the advantages and the influence it will give to extend the commercial affairs of the officer. Can it be believed that this influence will always be properly exercised? Where it is, will not contrary suspicions be entertained? This must create jealousy, detraction, and all the arts that rivalry will exercise and provoke, amidst which the dignity of the public officer is degraded, and his influence with the foreign functionaries lost.

It may perhaps be that the commercial consul, rising superior to the petty interests of his business, will conduct himself with sufficient energy and impartiality in the daily details of his official functions; but it cannot be expected that he should have either time or inclination for the higher duties of his station. He may certify ships' papers, authenticate protests, and grant passports, but that jealous superintendence so much desired, of the general interests of commerce, cannot be looked for. The instructions from the department of state, for the general conduct of consuls, require that in their correspondence they will note all events that bear upon the commerce of the country with the United States, and of our navigation; the establishment of new branches of industry in the extent of their consulate, and the increase and decline of those before established; that they will make such suggestions as in their opinion may lead to the increase of our commerce or navigation, and point out those which have a contrary effect, with the means that appear proper for avoiding them. Samples of manufactures, and specimens of produce, which appear to be valuable articles either of export or import, if not too bulky, should be sent with the consular letters—and if too bulky, may be addressed to the collectors of some of our principal ports; also seeds of plants and grain which might be cultivated to advantage in the United States.

How can it be expected that a merchant will attend to instructions that would in many cases have a direct tendency to injure the business in which he is engaged? His knowledge of the sources and facilities of trade are a part, and a most valuable part, of his capital. If his observation and experience qualify him to make those suggestions which the department requires, his interests will strongly dictate his silence; and the information which, if generally diffused, would be available to many, will be sacrificed to subserve the narrow purposes of a few. The position of a consul, particularly in the ports of semi-civilized nations, makes him frequently the only possible correspondent of our merchants at home. It is often the case that our enterprising commercial men, anxious to extend their business, to find out other channels, or open new sources of trade, seek the necessary information of the consuls who are upon the spot, or who are nearest to the proposed scene of action; of course they are entirely at the mercy of an interested man. If engaged in the same business, is it at all likely that he will encourage the interference of a stranger—that he will freely communicate correct information as to the nature and prospects of the proposed trade—the kind and quality of goods proper for the market, and the best methods of conducting the business? It is not necessary that he should state any thing that is positively false. The sensitiveness of capital is proverbial. Like the well-known plant which folds its leaves at the lightest touch, it shrinks and contracts beneath even the slightest breath of discouragement. The determination to the adventure is perhaps but half formed. There is a disposition to do something, modified by a general idea of its practicability, and profound ignorance of its details. An answer is received from the consul; no one statement in it is perhaps incorrect, but the prospects of profit are touched upon lightly, and the difficulties and obstacles forcibly depicted. The general tone of the answer is against the proposed investment, and the scheme, which perhaps if carried into effect might have been eminently successful, is dropped. The experience of a number of our merchants at home will verify the truth of this remark, and the experience of our consuls abroad could furnish countless instances. We think it not too much to assert that fully one half of them have had opportunities—we do not say that they have improved them—to increase their own business, or that of the house for whom they act as agent, at the expense of the general interests of the country; to exercise the influence of their office in obstructing the establishment of rivals, and to nip in the bud the shoots of commercial enterprise, which if suffered to take root and to spread forth their branches, might in the end overshadow the little shrubs which they have themselves planted.

Another and a sufficient reason for debarring consuls from engaging in business, and for confining them to the duties of their consulate, is, that these last, when properly performed, are fully sufficient to occupy the whole of their time and attention. Government would then have a right to insist upon the rigid performance of the general duties of the consulate. The corps might then reasonably be expected to make itself master of a complete knowledge of the countries through which it is distributed. Every department of physical science could be placed within the scope of its observation. Natural history in all its branches, geography, meteorology, agriculture, manufactures, commercial customs and laws, peculiar features of political and social institutions, character of the people, and in fact every

thing that, however remotely, can have the slightest bearing upon any of the great interests of our country. What a mass of well-digested information could thus be collected, available to the government of the United States, both in conduct of its foreign relations, and in its domestic legislation, and useful to the whole people! Consuls would be foreign agents of public instruction, as well as guardians of commerce. The results of their observation and industry could be rapidly disseminated, and their collections and illustrations in time adorn the museums and laboratories of every college and school in the country. The French are deriving in this way the greatest possible advantage from their consular establishment. Their consuls are salaried agents, confined to the duties of their office, which are diversified, onerous, and rigidly performed. The English have also long since perceived the imperfections of their former system, and no longer allow persons filling consular offices to engage in other pursuits.

This last observation suggests another objection to a combination of the business of consul and merchant. It is the loss of that respect and consideration which attaches to the consulates of other powers. In this particular we are compelled to take the notions of foreigners as we find them. We must yield to what we cannot alter. The consuls of other nations, supported by salaries from their governments and rendered independent of trade with its ceaseless turmoils and vexatious details, consider themselves to have greater dignity, and have conceded to them by the authorities of the country in which they reside, a higher official elevation and more social consideration than is given to the American members of the corps. It must be acknowledged that there is something very undignified and incongruous in the position of our consuls. One hour strutting in municipal processions, or flourishing at diplomatic dinners and levees, in all the glories of chapeau, epaulettes, and small-sword, and the next fighting with some obdurate Yankee skipper for his miserable fees; now defending the cause of an injured American citizen, and anon interrupted to dispose of a piece of sheeting or a barrel of sugar.

Should this great reformation in our consular system be effected, it will be essential that the method of compensation by fees should be changed. In more than one half of the ports where it is necessary to have consuls, the fees are insufficient to furnish a bare subsistence, while in a few others they reach an amount far beyond a proper support or a fair remuneration for the labor for which they are collected. The whole plan is fraught with the most injurious consequences. Upon this point Mr. Livingston strongly expresses himself. He says, "the subject is one that has engaged my close attention since I have had the direction of the department, and I have no hesitation in giving a decided opinion that the exaction of fees has been the source of misunderstandings between our consuls and masters of vessels, injurious to the reputation of the country—that it is degrading to the officer who is obliged to wrangle for them—is unequal in its operations—oppressive to our commerce, and ought either to be wholly abolished or so modified as to make the operation of the system more equal, by apportioning the amount to the size of the vessel, or if possible to the value of the cargo."

All consular fees are taxes upon commerce, and the question is justly asked, why such taxes are imposed? Are they just? Are they equal? Are they easily collected? Why should commerce, which already bears a great proportion of the expense of government, be taxed for the support of

a particular set of officers? To this last the report to which we have alluded conclusively replies, that it is no answer that those who derive the benefit should pay the expense. "It is not for the sole benefit of the ships which touch at a consular port that the consular office is created, the whole country is interested in the establishment. The concerns of its general commerce, the protection of its citizens abroad, its reputation is concerned. But the principle itself is a false one. Public offices are established for the general good, and though particular individuals may have more occasion for the exercise of these functions than others, yet those who are under the necessity of applying for their interposition never can with justice be exclusively taxed for the expense of the department which is organized for their protection. The judge receives a salary, yet not one tenth of the community are suitors in his court. So of all the salaried offices of government. All the exceptions to the rule are abuses. The evils of such a system are apparent. The question of compensation varies according to the place and circumstances of the time. It can rarely be accurately known. The collection gives rise to illegal exactions and oppressions, to disputes, to the loss of official dignity, to the suspicion of bad motives where even they do not exist. In no case are these evils more apparent than in the case of consuls. At a distance from all superintendence, they have greater opportunities for illegal exactions, and that very circumstance makes them more liable to suspicion."

An argument may perhaps be drawn in favor of the continuance of the exaction of fees, from the wants of the treasury. When the change was so strenuously urged by the secretary, the receipts of the customhouse were fully sufficient to defray the expenses of the government; now with an empty treasury, many who would otherwise advocate the measure, might object to add to the burdens of the government the comparatively trifling sum of two hundred thousand dollars—the sum which would be required to support an efficient consular establishment. This argument, which is of but temporary importance, can however have no influence upon the question of prohibiting consuls from engaging in business, and of compensating them by regular salaries. If the government, in its necessities, is compelled to continue these exactions upon commerce, let them be collected and paid into the treasury. The consular fees will more than balance the expenses of a salaried corps, and the government will be able to pocket something by the change.

We have not the means at hand of knowing the precise number of consuls employed. As our commerce expands itself, the number must of course be increased. At the time of Mr. Livingston's report, their number was stated at one hundred and fifty-six, and it was proposed to classify them as follows:

Thirty consuls, with salaries averaging \$2,000	.	.	\$60,000
One hundred and twenty-six vice-consuls and commercial agents, with salaries averaging \$1,000	.	.	126,000

A hasty calculation convinces us that forty consuls would be none too many. They should be divided into three classes as to their pay, which should be regulated partly by the general importance of their stations, but principally by the expenses of living. The first class might receive \$2,500; the second \$2,000; and the last \$1,500. Twenty-five hundred dollars in Liverpool or London may be considered nearly an equivalent to two thousand in Havana and Marseilles, or fifteen hundred in Malaga or

Cadiz. In case the fees that are now exacted are continued, the consul might in addition be allowed a small per centage upon his collections, in no case to exceed \$5.00. Thus, while independent of the fees, he would have an inducement to collect them for the government, and his pay would in a slight degree depend upon a portion of the actual labor performed.

The office of vice-consul, now we believe unknown to our laws, ought to be created, and its powers and duties, as in the case of consuls, accurately defined. Their salaries might vary with propriety from eight to twelve hundred dollars, with a small per centage upon their collections.

Commercial agents would form a third class. They should be regularly commissioned upon the nomination of the head of the consulate within whose bounds they reside, and their duties and rank in relation to consuls and vice-consuls established by law. Their compensation might be from two to five hundred dollars, without prohibition of other business.

It strikes us that a novel feature might also be added to the system which would very much increase its efficiency, in the appointment of two or three officers, who might be styled consular superintendents. They would be the mere agents of the department of state, or the consular bureau, for collection of information in relation to the true state of the various consulates; a means by which the government could exercise that surveillance over its officers abroad that it does over its officers at home. Consuls are much less under the eye of the appointing power—much less under the *espionage* of the public press and party jealousy, and consequently much more exposed to temptations to official misconduct than officers who reside at home. They are more free to neglect their duties or abuse their powers. The superintendents should have power to enter the consulates, examine the records and accounts, ferret out abuses, inquire into charges of misconduct, and report in full the result of their investigations to the department. A thousand instances of irregularity or neglect, which never come to the knowledge of the government, would be prevented by this supervision. It would also have a good effect upon personal as well as official conduct. Four such superintendents, or perhaps three, would be all that would be necessary to visit every consulate once a year; and as the visits would be irregular and at uncertain times, the consular offices would be kept constantly ready for their reception. We are convinced that some such plan would be eminently useful, and that it is required.

No one can doubt that a consular establishment, founded upon the plans which we have considered, would be far more efficient and creditable to the country than the present very imperfect system. Reformation is imperiously demanded by the wants of commerce, the general interests of the country, the character of our people, and the dignity of our government. Should the change ever be effected, we may, in the language of Mr. Livingston, "then expect to see these important offices filled, as they should be, by men of talent, education, and respectability of character, who would be the protectors, not the rivals, of our merchants; who would command the respect of the functionaries of the ports in which they reside, do honor to our national character, and whose whole time would be devoted to the duties of their office." We can also then insist upon it, that a consul shall be a representative of American manners and feelings; that he shall combine simplicity with a proper degree of refinement, and give the lie in his own person, to the oft asserted connection between democracy and disgusting insolence or boorish vulgarity.

ART. II.—THE OREGON TERRITORY.

It was long after the discovery of this continent by Christopher Columbus, before it became known in its full extent to the civilized portion of mankind. In the year 1513, Vasco Nunez de Balboa, who was at that time the governor of a colony of Spain, located at Darien, on the coast of the Atlantic ocean, while directing a march across the mountains in that vicinity, found his progress interrupted by an immense sea stretching off into the western horizon. The publication of this discovery led at once to the conjecture that this was the great Southern ocean, the search for which had so long inspired and baffled the zeal of navigators. From its juxtaposition to the Atlantic, it was supposed that the two seas were connected with each other, and the aim thereafter was to discover the spot where their waters intermingled. It was calculated by the Spanish adventurers that this point must lie somewhere in the neighborhood of the Isthmus of Darien, and their researches were mostly directed towards that region. In the mean while Fernando Magellan, a distinguished Portuguese navigator, having in vain importuned his own government, lent himself to the service of Spain; and in the year 1519 made a voyage to the East Indies, through the strait which now bears his name. This important discovery was regarded as demonstrating the practicability of circumnavigating the globe. But the route which it opened to the East Indies was found to be long and perilous, and the advantages resulting, hardly compensated for the difficulties encountered in prosecuting the trade through this line of communication. A still more interesting and important discovery was made in the year 1517, which revealed to the astonished world the extensive and flourishing empire of Mexico. It was subsequently conquered by Hernan Cortez, who marched to its capital, dethroned its monarch, struck terror into the hearts of his subjects, and reduced his magnificent kingdom to the dominion of Spain. Having firmly established his authority, he immediately commenced exploring the seas and country adjacent. By his splendid and fortunate enterprises having discovered that the interior country was unoccupied by any powerful tribes, and that the two great oceans were wholly separated from each other, he directed his expeditions toward the northwest, whither he penetrated as far as the southern entrance to the Peninsula of California, which he supposed to be an island. Hurtado, Mendoza, Ulloa, Coronado and others, successively pushed on these researches until their discoveries included the whole of New Spain. They accomplished no further laudable results, however, than to explode the idea of the existence of the magnificent and opulent cities of Cibola, which had so long fascinated and bewildered the imaginations of adventurers. The descriptions given of these voyages and discoveries, are very obscure and imperfect. They were generally written by persons who were unacquainted with the geography of the earth, who knew nothing of the advantages derived to navigation from astronomical observations, and who seem to have paid no regard to latitude or longitude. These circumstances have caused a great degree of inaccuracy in their statements, and render it almost impossible to determine the localities of the places they pretend to describe, or the actual extent of their discoveries. We are left almost entirely to conjecture in supplying these deficiencies, till we come down to the narratives given of the voyages of Juan de Fuca, in the year 1592.

It is supposed that he penetrated as far north as Vancouver's Island, inasmuch as his description of what was then supposed to be the northwest passage is perfectly in accordance with those subsequently given of the straits which separate that island from the main land. He passed through these straits, and, with an air of triumph, turned his course again to the southward, as if he had solved this great question. The representation that this grand discovery had been made, and that the country beyond was inhabited by affluent and powerful nations, induced the Spanish government to institute a more particular investigation of the subject. An expedition was accordingly fitted out for this purpose, under the direction of Sebastian Viscaino, which sailed from Acapulco on the 5th May, 1602. After having reached the western side of California, and surveyed and examined the coast and the territory adjoining, Viscaino proceeded still further northward, and is said to have entered the mouth of a large river, in about the 42—43d deg. of latitude; which has never yet been sufficiently identified. He subsequently returned to Spain, where, upon relating the success of his adventures, he obtained from Philip III., orders for carrying out some plans which he had projected for establishing trading settlements on the coast. His death, which occurred in Mexico, in 1606, prevented the execution of these designs, and suspended the adventures of the Spaniards in that region for a period of about one hundred and sixty years. The subsequent most important and interesting discoveries connected with this portion of our continent, were made by Russia in about the beginning of the eighteenth century. The conquests which she had obtained over Kamschatcha, and the country which intervened between that and Europe, inspired the desire still further to extend her dominions. Ambitious to establish the sway of his sceptre beyond those barriers, the Czar became anxious to discover whether the waters which laved the shores of Kamschatcha communicated directly with those of the Pacific ocean. To the result of the several expeditions fitted out for this purpose, under the direction successively of Behring, Tchiricoff, and Spangberg, is Russia indebted for her possessions in North America. These were followed by the government of Great Britain, which thereafter became deeply interested in the controversy respecting the existence of a northwest passage between the two oceans. She despatched two several expeditions for the purpose of solving the question, one of which was directed to Baffin's Bay, under Clerke; and the other to the Pacific, under Capt. Cook. We derive from the narratives of Capt. Cook the most complete and accurate account of the northwest coast of America that had yet been given. He was followed by Meares in 1788, and Vancouver in 1792, who were sent out by the same government. To the discoveries of these navigators the government of Great Britain refers their title to the countries watered by the Columbia; the justice of which will be hereafter developed. But we are indebted to the more daring and active enterprise of our own New England traders, for those more full and accurate accounts of the territory and resources of the Oregon, which render it an object of interesting speculation at the present day. In the year 1791 several vessels arrived in the waters of the North Pacific ocean, among which was the Columbia, under the command of Captain Gray from Boston. This enterprising adventurer had before visited these seas in the years 1787—8, under the direction of a company of merchants of that city, formed with a view to participate in the advantages of the fur trade of that region. He then made many important observations and dis-

coveries, and extensively unfolded the commercial capabilities and resources of the country. He sailed from Boston on this last expedition in May, 1790; and reached the coast of North America in the year following, a little northward of Cape Mendocino, and sailed along the coast towards Nootka. In about latitude 46 deg. 16 min. Capt. Gray descried an inlet, which he attempted to enter. But the outflowing current was so strong as to baffle all his efforts to effect an entrance, although he spent nine days in endeavoring to do so. He at length pursued his voyage northward, and on the fifth of June he anchored in the harbor of Clyoquot, near Nootka. From this point he sailed for Queen Charlotte's Island, and on the 15th of August he observed an opening under the parallel of 54½ deg., which he entered, and sailed to the distance of more than eighty miles in a northeasterly direction. The channel was discovered to be exceedingly broad and deep, and the stream seemed to extend far beyond the distance already traversed in the same direction. He returned again to Clyoquot without pursuing the adventure any further, and under the persuasion that this was the *Rio de los Reyes*, which was represented to be the route through which Admiral Fonté pursued his way to the Atlantic in 1640. It has been since called the Portland Canal. Capt. Gray wintered at Clyoquot, in a fortification which he erected on the shore and called Fort Defiance. He also here built and launched a schooner, which he called "The Enterprise," and which was the first American vessel built on these shores. In the month of August, in this same year, Captain Kendrick, (who had accompanied Captain Gray in his first expedition, and had remained in these seas with the *Washington*, during Gray's return to Boston,) was anchored in Nootka Sound. Having reason to apprehend hostility from the Spaniards, and supposing that an opening might exist at the northwestern extremity of the harbor, he determined to make his escape to the sea in that direction. In this he was successful, and he named the channel thus discovered Massachusett's Sound. He also purchased from several of the native chiefs large tracts of land near Nootka, which were transferred by deeds *marked* by the chiefs, witnessed by several of the officers and crew of the *Washington*, and authenticated by a notary at Macao. In 1840 an application was pending in congress, made by the representatives of the owners and captain of the *Washington*, to confirm this title to these lands. After making this purchase Kendrick sailed for the Sandwich Islands.

In April, 1792, Captain Gray sailed from his winter-quarters at Clyoquot, when he fell in with the English navigator Vancouver, at the entrance of the Strait of Fuca. He informed Vancouver that he had entered an inlet to the northward in latitude 54½ deg., into which he had sailed as far as the 56th deg. of latitude, without discovering its termination. That he had also stood off the mouth of a river, in the latitude of 46 deg. 10 min., whose current was so strong that it presented an effectual bar to his entrance, although he had spent nine days in the effort. Vancouver supposed this to be an opening which he represented that he himself had passed, on the forenoon of the 27th April, and which he declared was *apparently* inaccessible, not from the current, but owing to the breakers which extended across its entrance.

In his narrative, under date of April 30th, 1792, Captain Vancouver says, "we have now explored a part of the American continent, extending nearly two hundred and fifteen leagues, under the most fortunate and fa-

vorable circumstances of wind and weather. So minutely has this extensive coast been inspected, that the surf has been constantly seen to break on its shores from the mast head; and it was but in a few small intervals only, where our distance precluded its being visible from the deck. It must be considered as a very singular circumstance, that, in so great an extent of sea coast, we should not *until now* have seen the appearance of any opening in its shores, which presented any certain prospect of affording shelter; the whole coast forming one compact, solid, and nearly straight barrier against the sea. The river mentioned by Mr. Gray, should, from the latitude he assigned to it, have existed in the bay south of Cape Disappointment. This we *passed* in the forenoon of the 27th, and, as I then observed, if any inlet or river *should be found* it must be a very intricate one, and inaccessible to vessels of our burthen, owing to the reefs and broken water which then appeared in its neighborhood. Mr. Gray stated that he had been several days attempting to enter it, which at length he was unable to effect on account of a very strong outset. This is a phenomenon difficult to account for, as in most cases, where there are outlets of such strength on a sea-coast, there are corresponding tides setting in. Be that, however, as it may, I was thoroughly convinced, as were also most persons of observation on board, that we could not possibly have passed any safe, navigable opening, harbor, or place of security for shipping, on this coast, from Cape Mendocino to the promontory of Classet, (Cape Flattery,) nor had we any reason to alter our opinions, notwithstanding that theoretical geographers have thought proper to assert in that space the existence of arms of the ocean communicating with a mediterranean sea and extensive rivers, with safe and convenient ports." Whatever may have been the motives which prevented Vancouver from placing any reliance on the accounts of Capt. Gray, it is evident at least from this extract, that no discoveries of the kind had been made upon this coast by the English navigators, at this date. Captain Gray, however, was not contented to leave the matter thus undecided. After parting with Vancouver he proceeded southward along the coast till the 7th May, when the record in his log-book proceeds as follows.

A. M. Being within six miles of the land, saw an entrance in the same, which had a very good appearance of a harbor; lowered away the jolly-boat, and went in search of an anchoring place, the ship standing to and fro, with a very strong weather-current. At 1 P. M. the boat returned, having found no place where the ship could anchor with safety—made a sail on the ship—stood in for the shore. We soon saw, from our mast head, a passage in between the sand-bars. At half past three bore away and run in northeast by east, having from four to eight fathoms, sandy bottom; and as we drew in nearer between the bars, had from ten to thirteen fathoms, having a very strong tide of ebb to stem. Many canoes alongside. At 5 P. M. came to in five fathoms water, sandy bottom, in a safe harbor, well sheltered from the sea by long sand-bars and spits. Our latitude observed this day was 46 deg. 58 min. north.

May 10th. Fresh breezes and pleasant weather—many natives alongside. At noon all the canoes left us. At 1 P. M. began to unmoor; took up the best bower-anchor, and hove short on the small bower-anchor. At half past four, being high-water, hove up the anchor, and came to sail, and a beating down the harbor.

May 11th. At half past seven we were out clear of the bars, and

directed our course to the southward along shore. At 8 P. M. the entrance of Bulfinch's harbor bore north, distance four miles; the southern extremity of the land bore south-southeast half east, and the northern north-northwest. Sent up the main top-gallant yard and set all sail. At 4 P. M. saw the entrance of our desired port bearing east-southeast, distance six leagues; in steering-sails, and hauled our wind in shore. At 8 P. M., being a little to windward of the entrance of the harbor, bore away and run in east-northeast between the breakers, having from five to seven fathoms of water. When we were over the bar, we found this to be a large river of fresh water, up which we steered. Many canoes came alongside. At 1 P. M. came to with the small bower in ten fathoms, black and white sand. The entrance between the bars bore west-southwest, distant ten miles. The north side of the river a half a mile distant from the ship, the south side of the same two and a half miles distant. A village on the north side of the river, west by north, distant three quarters of a mile. Vast numbers of natives came alongside. People employed in pumping the salt water out of our water-casks in order to fill with fresh, while the ship floated in. So ends.

May 12. Fresh winds and rainy weather. Many natives alongside. Hove up the best bower-anchor. Seamen and tradesmen at their various departments.

May 14. Fresh gales and cloudy; many natives alongside. At noon weighed and came to sail; standing up the river northeast by east we found the channel very narrow. At 4 P. M. we had sailed upwards of twelve or fifteen miles, when the channel was so very narrow that it was almost impossible to keep in it, having from three to eighteen fathoms water, sandy bottom. At half past four the ship took ground, but she did not stay long before she came off, without any assistance. We backed her off stern foremost into three fathoms, and let go the small bower, and moored ship with hedge and hawser. The jolly-boat was sent to sound the channel out, but found it not navigable any further up; so of course we must have taken the wrong channel. So ends, with rainy weather; many natives alongside.

Tuesday, May 15. Light airs and pleasant weather; many natives from different tribes came alongside. At 10 A. M., unmoored and dropped down with the tide to a better anchoring place. Smiths and other tradesmen constantly employed. In the afternoon Capt. Gray and Mr. Hoskins, in the jolly-boat, went on shore to take a short view of the country.

May 16. Light airs and cloudy. At 4 P. M. hove up the anchor and towed down about three miles, with the last of the ebb tide. Came into six fathoms, sandy bottom, the jolly-boat sounding the channel. At 10 A. M. a fresh breeze came up the river. With the first of the ebb-tide we got under way and went down the river. At 1, (from its being very squally,) we came to, about two miles from the village, (Chinouk,) which bore west-southwest; many natives alongside. Fresh gales and squally.

May 17. Fresh winds and squally; many canoes alongside. Calkers calking the pinnacle. Seamen paying the ship's sides with tar; painter painting ship, smiths and carpenters at their departments.

May 18. Pleasant weather. At four in the morning began to heave a-head; at half-past came to sail, standing down the river with the ebb-tide; at seven (being slack water and the wind fluttering) we came to in five fathoms, sandy bottom. The entrance between the bars bore southwest

by west, distance three miles. The north point of the harbor bore north-west, distant two miles. The south bore southeast, distant three and a half miles. At nine a breeze sprung up from the eastward—took up the anchor and came to sail, but the wind soon came fluttering again; came to with the kedge and hawser—reeved out fifty fathoms. Noon pleasant. Latitude observed 46 deg. 17 min. north. At one came to sail with the first of the ebb-tide, and drifted down broadside, with light airs and strong tide. At three quarters past, a fresh wind came from the northward; wore ship and stood into the river again. At four came to in six fathoms. Good holding ground about six or seven miles up. Many canoes alongside.

May 19. Fresh wind and clear weather. Early a number of canoes came alongside. Seamen and tradesmen employed in their various departments.

May 20. Gentle breezes and pleasant weather. At one, P. M. (being full sea,) took up the anchor and made sail, standing down the river. At two the wind left us, we being on the bar, with a very strong tide, which set on the breakers. It was now not possible to get out without a breeze to shoot her across the tide, so we were obliged to bring up in three and a half fathoms, the tide running five knots. At three quarters past two, a fresh wind came in from seaward. We immediately came to sail, and beat over the bar, having from five to seven fathoms water in the channel. At five, P. M., we were out clear of all the bars, and in twenty fathoms water. A breeze came from the southward. We bore away to the northward; set all sail to the best advantage. At eight, Cape Hancock bore southeast, distant three leagues; the northern extremity of the land in sight bore north by west. At nine, in steering and top-gallant sails. Midnight, light airs.

May 21. At six, A. M., the nearest land in sight bore east-southeast, distant eight leagues. At seven, top-gallant sails and light stay-sails. At eleven, steering-sails fore and aft. Noon, pleasant, agreeable weather. The entrance to Bulfinch's harbor bore southeast by east-half-east, distant five leagues.

Before leaving this river, Captain Gray bestowed upon it the name of his ship, the *Columbia*. The southern side of its entrance he named Cape Adams, and the north side Cape Hancock. This point had been previously named Cape Disappointment, by Captain Meares, in 1788, as indicative of the point where his own researches terminated, without any successful result. The territory watered by this river and its tributaries, has since been called the Oregon Territory, from a tradition, said to have prevailed among the Indians near Lake Superior, of the existence of a mighty river rising in that vicinity, and emptying its waters into the Pacific, and which was supposed to be the *Columbia*. But to this expedition of Gray we must refer its first discovery, and the first accurate and satisfactory account which we have of this part of the coast of the North Pacific. In the month of October of the same year, Captain Broughton was despatched by Vancouver, and succeeded in effecting an entrance up the same river to the distance of about 72 miles. This expedition of Captain Broughton, with the narrative given of his adventures by Meares, in 1788, are made the basis of the claim of the English government to the territory of Oregon. In order to give a clear exposition of the nature of this claim, we need but quote a brief extract from the narrative of Meares, and compare it with

those of Vancouver and Gray, already cited. Sailing in a southerly direction from about latitude 46 deg. and 47 min. he rounded a promontory, after which he says—"a large bay, as we had imagined, opened to our view, that bore a very promising appearance, and into which we steered with every encouraging expectation. The high land that formed the boundaries of the bay was at a great distance, and a flat, level country occupied the intervening space; the bay itself took rather a westerly direction. As we steered in, the water shoaled to nine, eight, and seven fathoms, when breakers were seen from the deck, right ahead; and from the mast-head they were observed to extend across the bay. We therefore hauled out, and directed our course to the opposite shore, to see if there was any channel, or if we could discover any port. The name of Cape Disappointment was given to the promontory, and the bay received the name of *Deception Bay*. By an indifferent meridian observation, it lies in the latitude of 46 deg. 10 min. north, and in the computed longitude of 235 deg. 34 min. east. We can now with safety assert that there is no such river as that of Saint Roc exists, as laid down in the Spanish charts." It appears, therefore, that Captain Meares made no discovery of any such inlet or river. The idea of its existence seemed to him to have been satisfactorily disproved by his own observations of the coast. Vancouver's narrative, as we have seen, is still stronger. He scouts at the descriptions of all previous adventurers, as the idle and unfounded "assertions of theoretical geographers;" and claims, with an evident air of self-gratulation, the honor of having demonstrated the absurdity of the supposition. He avers, that he had *minutely explored this part of the coast, under the most fortunate and favorable circumstances of wind and weather*; and then positively insists upon the impossibility of examining or even approaching its shores. With these facts and circumstances before us, it cannot be questioned for a moment, that to Captain Gray belongs the honor of having first penetrated the waters of the Columbia; and that, consequently, the claim of the United States is prior to that of Great Britain. The question of right, however, is still mooted, though measures are now in progress which may eventuate in securing to the United States its undisputed possession.

From this period the shores of the North Pacific gradually became more and more familiar to all navigators. Voyages for trade and exploration were pursued until the year 1796, when the declaration of war between Great Britain and Spain withdrew the attention of those nations from the subject, and they became thereafter too much engrossed in more important interests at home, to care for the progress of discovery in these seas. For nearly twenty years from this date the trade between this coast and China was carried on solely by United States vessels, or under our own flag. The East India Company prohibited the trade to the English merchants, and Russian vessels were excluded from the ports of China, so that few other than American ships floated on the waters of the North Pacific. The commerce was prosecuted by vessels from the United States, or from Europe, to this coast, which were laden with sugar, spirits, wine, tobacco, gunpowder, iron, fire-arms, and various coarse articles of woollen manufacture. These were here exchanged for furs with the natives, or at the Russian settlements, and were transported hence to China, where their proceeds were invested in articles of merchandise intended for our own or European markets. Up to this time no settlement had been made on

the coast by the United States, and but little was known of the resources of the interior country. The vast multitudes of its native population which thronged around its shores for the purposes of traffic, and the imperfect and confused accounts which they gave of the neighboring country, were calculated to bewilder the fancy of the adventurers and give an unlimited range to the wildest vagaries. But as the imagination wandered over the immense territory lying between the coast of the Pacific and the banks of the Mississippi, the mind grew more credulous of its suggestions. Science with her abstruse calculations, philosophy with her thousand speculations, and curiosity with her endless conjectures, were busy, restless, and unsatisfied; but the hope of gain and aggrandizement alone stimulated the enterprise which first penetrated those unbroken solitudes, and attempted to explore those unknown regions. In the years 1788-92, Alexander Mackenzie was employed for this purpose by the North West Company, a fur-trading association of Canada, whose settlements had already extended nearly to the fifty-ninth parallel, about 800 miles beyond Lake Superior. Mackenzie spent some time in exploring a river which was then supposed to be the Columbia, but which has since been discovered to empty its waters into the Strait of Fuca, and is called *Frazer's river*. The result of his expeditions was given to the public, in London, in 1802, together with a sketch of the Canada fur trade, accompanied with suggestions as to the most advisable mode of regulating the intercourse between this part of America and China, so as to secure to Great Britain its commercial advantages, which, it was represented, were entirely under the control of "adventurers from the United States."

We allude to these expeditions of Mackenzie, merely as originating that spirit of enterprise and inquiry which drew the attention of rival powers to this portion of our continent. In January, 1803, the then President of the United States addressed a confidential message to congress, recommending the immediate adoption of measures to explore it. Captain Merriweather Lewis and William Clarke were subsequently commissioned to execute the proposed undertaking. They were instructed "to explore the river Missouri and its principal branches to their sources; and then to seek and trace to its termination in the Pacific, some stream, whether the Columbia, the Oregon, the Colorado, or any other, which might offer the most direct and practicable water communication across the continent, for the purposes of commerce." On the 14th of May, 1804, Messrs. Lewis and Clarke, in pursuance of these instructions, launched their bark on the waters of the Missouri. The course of this river was then scarcely known; its shores were occupied by numerous and hostile tribes of Indians, while many difficulties and privations, arising from other sources, embarrassed their progress. Towards the end of October, however, they had reached to about 1600 miles from the mouth of the river, where they remained until April, 1805. In the summer succeeding they arrived at its head-waters, which took their rise among the Rocky Mountains. After a tedious march over the great dividing ridge, a new and inviting scene of adventure opened before them. We can hardly conceive of any thing equal to the delight they must have experienced, as they descended from these rugged heights to a plain of country wholly unknown to the world which they had left behind them, and whose luxuriant wildness was now for the first time gazed upon by the eye of civilized man. They must have trod its soil with a sacred awe as they penetrated its deep solitudes,

and hesitated long, before they launched their frail barks, to disturb the serenity which had for untold ages reigned over its quiet waters. On the 7th of October they fell in with a stream upon which they embarked in their canoes. Borne along on its gentle current, they were wafted into a nobler river, stretching and widening in its course, and swelling with the waters of many beautiful tributaries, till it bore them onward into the broad bosom of the Pacific ocean. The stream on which they at first embarked was discovered to be a branch of the Columbia river, which they named Lewis river. After a few days they reached its confluence with another great branch, which they called Clarke river. These two united to form the Columbia; through which, on the 15th of November, they arrived at Cape Disappointment, the northern side of its entrance into the Pacific, and about 4000 miles from the place of their departure. They formed an encampment near the mouth of the Columbia which they called *Fort Clatsop*, where they spent the succeeding winter. They found the natives already too well accustomed to the presence of white men to be disturbed by their appearance among them, and easily supplied themselves with the necessary appliances for comfort and subsistence. On the 13th of March, 1806, they commenced their return: They rowed their canoes up the Columbia till they reached its falls, about 125 miles from its mouth; whence they prosecuted their journey together by land till they reached the Rocky Mountains. Here they divided into two parties, one of which struck directly eastward for the Missouri, while the other took a southerly direction toward the Yellow Stone, through which they reached the Missouri. The two parties met again at a short distance below the point where these two streams are united, and arrived at St. Louis on the 23d of September following. The narrative of these two skilful and scientific adventurers furnishes the first accurate knowledge we have of the territory of Oregon. It was not published till the year 1814. But long before this period the results of their researches had become generally known, and had caused both the English and American merchants to take a lively and more active interest in the vast resources which were thus opened to the speculations of commercial enterprise. The first attempt to establish a settlement in the territory was made by *The Missouri Fur Company* of St. Louis, in 1808. This company planted several posts on the Upper Missouri, and one on the head-waters of the Lewis river, beyond the Rocky Mountains, for the purpose of establishing a regular trade, which is said to have been the first settlement ever made by white men in the territory watered by the Columbia and its tributaries. The project however met with much opposition and hostility from the natives, and lingered in a feeble condition till the year 1810, when it was abandoned.

At this time the *Pacific Fur Company* was established in the city of New York, under the auspices and control of John Jacob Astor, a German merchant, possessing an immense capital, and great commercial sagacity. He proposed to establish a post or settlement at the mouth of the Columbia, which should be the grand depository for furs collected at minor posts to be established at various points along the shores of the Pacific, the branches of the Columbia, and the head-waters of the Missouri. Ships were to be sent annually from New York to this grand depot, where they were to discharge their cargoes, were then laden with the furs, with which they were to proceed to China, where these were to be exchanged at a high rate for teas, silks, and other articles of merchandise destined

for the New York market. This splendid project was no sooner conceived by Mr. Astor, than, availing himself of his ample means, he at once undertook to carry it into execution. With this view he planned two expeditions. In September, 1810, he despatched a party on board of the ship *Tonquin*, which sailed from New York for the Columbia, under the direction of Captain Thorne. Soon after her arrival at the mouth of the Columbia, in March, 1811, the *Tonquin* sailed towards the north in search of furs. A spot had previously been marked out for the principal depot, on the south side of the Columbia, about eight miles from its mouth, which, in compliment to the principal patron and projector of this scheme, was called Astoria. The capital at his command furnishing the necessary materials, commodious buildings were erected, gardens were planted, a vessel was built and launched, a traffic was carried on with the natives in such a manner as to conciliate their prejudices, and before the summer passed away Astoria presented all the appearances of a thriving and prosperous settlement.

In the spring of the succeeding year they were joined by the other party, which, under the direction of Mr. W. P. Hunt, of New Jersey, had taken the route across the continent. They took their departure from St. Louis in January, 1811. Entering the Missouri, they adventurously and cautiously pushed their way through the hostile tribes on its banks, now passing under towering bluffs, and anon through level plains, which stretched far away into the horizon, till they reached the Great Bend of the river, whence they pursued their journey by land to the Rocky Mountains. Passing over the ridge, in about latitude 46° , they came to the Salmon, a branch of the Lewis river, where they again took to their canoes, and reached Astoria in the spring of 1812. Soon after their arrival, intelligence was received that the *Tonquin*, with her whole crew, had been destroyed by the Indians near Nootka Sound. The various causes of vexation and discouragement experienced from the hostile dispositions of the natives, and the losses and misfortunes occasioned by the perils of the ocean, might indeed have daunted a less efficient spirit. But his large pecuniary resources enabled Mr. Astor to overcome these hindrances; and it is difficult to say to what extent his plans might have been consummated, had they not been frustrated by more formidable obstacles. Upon the declaration of war between the United States and Great Britain, *all the establishments, furs, and property* of the Pacific Fur Company were transferred to the North West Company; Astoria was taken possession of in the name of his Britannic majesty, and "rebaptized by the name of Fort George."

Such was the termination of the truly splendid project of Mr. Astor, occasioned, as we have seen, by events and circumstances which were beyond his calculation or control. It must be observed, however, that a very large proportion of those associated with him, and employed in this enterprise, were British subjects. They were bound by no ties of birth, citizenship, or sympathy, to American interests; and on discovering the hostile attitude in which they would be placed to their native sovereign in defending these settlements, they readily withdrew and ranked themselves on the side of Great Britain. This fatal result cannot but be a subject of deep regret, inasmuch as the maintenance of this post till after the war, would have insured the success of the project, and secured to the United States all the advantages arising from an undisputed possession of the

territory watered by the Columbia river and its branches. Although Astoria was subsequently delivered to the "re-occupation of the United States," under the direction of the government of Great Britain, in 1818, she still maintained that she had a right to extend her jurisdiction over the territory, and insisted that the settlement made at Astoria was an encroachment on our part. The question has since undergone much discussion in the diplomatic correspondence carried on between the two nations, and is hardly yet definitively adjusted.

Upon the failure of the scheme of Mr. Astor, the North-West Company, and subsequently the Hudson's Bay Company, severally established their settlements in different parts of the territory. They removed the principal post from the mouth of the river, and established it at Vancouver, on the Wallamet, about 20 miles from its confluence with the Columbia. We hear nothing more of any American adventurers in this region, till the year 1823, when General Ashley, of St. Louis, fitted out an expedition for the country beyond the Rocky Mountains. The daring exploits of this enterprising adventurer have been the frequent theme of admiration on the western frontier. He had previously established trading posts on this side of the mountains, by his individual enterprise. He now crossed the mountains, between the sources of the Platte and the Colorado, near the 42d degree of latitude, and succeeded in collecting a large quantity of furs, which he transported to St. Louis. In the following year he sent out a large band of trappers and hunters, and in the space of three years, collected furs amounting to about \$180,000 in value. In 1827, sixty men were sent out under his direction, who marched as far as *Lake Youta*, beyond the mountains; and, in less than eight months, returned laden with a rich supply of furs. In these expeditions pack-horses were used to transport the goods. Mr. Ashley at length sold out his establishments and interest in the trade to an association formed at St. Louis, called *The Rocky Mountain Fur Company*, who established a regular trade with the countries of the Colorado and the Columbia rivers. This company sent out an expedition with wagons, in the year 1829, the following account of which we quote, as it will give an accurate idea of the course now generally pursued, and may be useful to future adventurers to the country beyond the mountains: "On the 20th of April we set out from St. Louis, with eighty-one men, all mounted on mules; ten wagons, each drawn by five mules, and two dearborns, (light carriages or carts,) each drawn by one mule. Our route was nearly due west to the western limits of the state of Missouri, and thence along the Santa Fé trail, about 40 miles from which the course was for some degrees north of west, across the waters of the Kansas, and up the Gréat Platte to the Rocky Mountains, and to the head of Wind river, where it issues from the mountains. This took us until the 16th of July, and was as far as we wished the wagons to go, as the furs to be brought in were to be collected at this place; which is, or was this year, (1829,) the great rendezvous of the persons engaged in that business. Here the wagons could easily have crossed the Rocky mountains, it being what is called the *Southern Pass*, had it been desirable for them to do so; which it was not, for the reason stated. For our support, at leaving the Missouri settlements, until we should get into the buffalo country, we drove twelve head of cattle, besides a milch cow. Eight of these only being required for use before we got to the buffaloes, the others went on to the head of Wind river. We began to fall in with

the buffaloes on the Platte, about 350 miles from the white settlements ; and from that time lived on buffaloes, the quantity being infinitely beyond what we needed. On the 4th of August, the wagons being in the mean time loaded with the furs which had been previously taken, we set out on the return to St. Louis. All the high points of the mountains then in view were white with snow ; but the passes, and valleys, and all the level country, were green with grass. Our route back was over the same ground nearly as in going out, and we arrived at St. Louis on the 10th of October, bringing back the ten wagons, the dearborns being left behind ; four of the oxen, and the milch cow, were also brought back to the settlements in Missouri, as we did not need them for provision. Our men were all healthy during the whole time ; we suffered nothing by the Indians, and had no accident but the death of one man, being buried under a bank of earth that fell upon him, and another being crippled at the same time. Of the mules we lost but one by fatigue, and two horses stolen by the Kansas Indians ; the grass being, along the whole route, going and coming, sufficient for the support of horses and mules. The usual weight in the wagons was about one thousand eight hundred pounds. The usual progress of the wagons was from fifteen to twenty-five miles per day. The country being almost all open, level, and prairie, the chief obstructions were ravines and creeks, the banks of which required cutting down ; and for this purpose a few pioneers were generally kept ahead of the caravan. This is the first time that wagons ever went to the Rocky Mountains, and the ease and safety with which it was done prove the facility of communicating over-land with the Pacific ocean ; the route from the *Southern Pass*, where the wagons stopped, to the Great Falls of the Columbia, being easier and better than on this side of the mountains, with grass enough for horses and mules, but a scarcity of game for the support of man."

The North American Fur Company, at the head of which was Mr. Astor, had hitherto confined its operations principally to the neighborhood of the great lakes, the head-waters of the Mississippi, and the lower part of the Missouri rivers. In the year 1822, it became united with another company, under the name of *The Columbia Fur Company*, when its operations were extended to the head-waters of the Missouri, and along the sources of the Yellow Stone. The more enterprising and successful operations of the traders at St. Louis, now stimulated this company to push their expeditions beyond the Rocky Mountains. They confined themselves, however, exclusively to the objects of trade about the waters of the Columbia, and seldom penetrated into the interior of the country. In 1832, Captain Bonneville, of the United States army, then stationed at one of the posts on our western frontier, having obtained a furlough, with some assistance from the city of New York, left Missouri for the Oregon Territory. He was accompanied with a band of about one hundred men, twenty wagons, and a number of mules and horses, laden with goods, and the necessary provisions, and utensils for hunting and trapping. He was the first who crossed the Rocky Mountains with wagons. Pursuing the usual route along the course of the Platte, he arrived at the mountains so early in the season, as to furnish the opportunity of pursuing his enterprise under the most favorable circumstances. Descending into the vale on the opposite side, he struck Lewis river near its source. He planted a station near the Colorado, where his

party were employed in trading, hunting, and trapping. Captain Bonneville made several excursions over the country, but it does not appear that he reached as far as the Pacific. After an absence of about two years, he returned again to St. Louis with the most interesting accounts of the country he had visited. At about this time, (1834,) a plan was projected by Mr. Nathaniel Wyeth, of Massachusetts, to establish a direct trade between the ports of New England and the waters of the Columbia. In prosecution of his plan, he sent a vessel to the coast, and himself made two expeditions across the continent. He erected a trading post near the confluence of the *Portneuf* and *Lewis* rivers, in the southeast corner of Oregon, which he called *Fort Hall*; and another at the entrance of the *Wallamet* into the Columbia, on *Wappatoo Island*, about 160 miles from the ocean. His plan was similar to that of Mr. Astor. Having observed that the waters in this region abounded in salmon, he calculated that the supply of these would be ample enough to meet all the expenses of an expedition, thus leaving a clear profit on the furs. We are indebted to the narrative of Mr. Wyeth for the most interesting and accurate account which has yet been furnished us of the nature, capabilities, and resources of Oregon. His plan for founding settlements was well contrived, and in its dawning operations bid fair to establish an enterprising American colony upon the coast of the North Pacific. The ample supplies which could have been provided to meet the demands of commercial speculation, must have led to an increase of its population, and its consequent permanency and prosperity. But the hopes which it had inspired were blasted by the hostility of the Hudson's Bay Company. The existence of this company has always been adverse to colonization in Oregon, and but one settlement has been made under its auspices, west of the Rocky Mountains. This is on the Wallamet, and is composed of low Canadians who have intermarried with the natives, and families of the half-breed. All its buildings and appliances are subordinate to the uses and interests of the company, and no inducements are held out to encourage a better class of settlers.

There is however another class of adventurers, (if we may be permitted to call them such,) whose operations are not unworthy our interested attention. The spirit of Christian philanthropy suggested the first expedition to this territory which was unconnected with any objects of trade or gain. A small band were sent out for missionary purposes by the American Baptist Society in 1832. These were followed, in 1835, by another party, under the direction of the Methodist Episcopal Society, which planted a station on the banks of the Wallamet, about seventy miles from its mouth. Since that time their number has been gradually increasing. It is stated in a recent report of this society, that on the ninth of October, 1839, a company of fifty persons, including adults and minors, male and female, left New York for Oregon. These included six missionaries with their wives and children; one physician, wife and child; a missionary steward, wife and two children; two farmers, wives and children; a cabinet maker; two carpenters, and a blacksmith, their wives and children; and five single female teachers. On their arrival at the station on the Wallamet, the number of settlers amounted to about sixty-eight persons. The station, it is stated in the report, was well stocked with cattle, under a fine state of cultivation, and had already become "so productive as to furnish the mission family with abundance." The

American Board have stations at Kamiah, in the country of the Nes Perces Indians, on the Kooskoos-ke, a branch of the Lewis river; at Willatpoo, on the Walla Walla, near the great bend of the Columbia, and also on the Clear Water river. At the latter of which a printing press is in successful operation. It is said, in their last annual report, that "a saw-mill and grainmill have been put in operation at Clear Water, and a grainmill at Waületpu." Accessions have recently been made to all of these several settlements by emigrants from New York and other places, and they are generally represented to be in a very thriving and prosperous condition.

We cannot but regard these settlements as the precursors of incalculable good as regards the future prospects and condition of this territory. It is now a serious question how far its possession and settlement may be an object of interest on account of the fur trade. The extent to which it has been carried on, and the unceasing avidity with which it has been pursued, have caused the disappearance of most of the animals whose skins and furs were an object of enterprise. The Hudson's Bay Company have found it necessary to restrain the trade, at certain seasons, in order to prevent their entire extinction; and the time is probably not far distant when some other mode of employing capital in that region must be resorted to; while what is now known of the resources of the country affords but little hope of a very speedy return to any other than what has been hitherto the usual mode of investment. The further investigations of science may perhaps give greater accuracy to existing descriptions and localities, but it can develop no new sources of wealth or aggrandizement. The general characteristic features of the country are well understood. Its territory has been traversed, its rivers have been explored, and its mountains have been scaled by the chemist, the botanist, the geologist, the hunter, and the trapper; and the lover of romance and adventure has delineated the variegated attractions of its natural scenery. We must now regard it as presenting no other allurements to the adventurer than such as may be found in a rich and luxuriant soil, a temperate and salubrious climate, and vast commercial capabilities. The ordinary occupations of commerce, agriculture, trade, and manufactures, with industry, frugality, and enterprise, will yield at once an ample, and in time an affluent recompense. And what more could be desired? What more (aside from the religious principle, how much less) was it that encouraged our forefathers to encounter the sturdy forests and rigorous climate of New England? What more was it that has covered the banks of the Ohio with opulent cities, and made the valley of the Mississippi to teem with a flourishing and happy population? What more was it that has made our whole country the abode of prosperity, civilization, and refinement? They who are accustomed to estimate the progress of mankind by the slow and languid growth of ancient nations, may smile at the prediction; but let the existing difficulties be removed; let the interposition of the general government settle the claims of the United States to this territory; let it render the way thither easy and accessible, by establishing permanent posts at convenient distances on the route; let it establish a military post at the mouth of the Columbia to protect the lives, the property, and the interests of its citizens, and Oregon will soon be covered with permanent settlements, the history of whose growth and prosperity shall at least equal that of any of the states now composing our republic.

ART. III.—BRITISH IMPORT DUTIES.

CONCLUSION OF THE EVIDENCE GIVEN BEFORE THE COMMITTEE OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS ON IMPORT DUTIES.*

THE next important witness examined by the committee was James Deacon Hume, Esq., who had been in the customs thirty-eight years, and nearly eleven years afterward in the board of trade.

Mr. Hume expressed as his opinion, in speaking of the abolition of all protective duties, that no general measure could be more beneficial to the country than a removal of all protections, prohibitions, and restrictions. He could not conceive that a country exporting forty millions' worth of its industry in the year, could effectually and beneficially, for any length of time, protect any partial interest whatever. If the protection is effectual, it can only be so in consequence of the prosperity of the country arising from other means; but if the country should cease to be prosperous, in consequence of being unable to find markets abroad for this enormous amount of exportation, then the parties making those goods that had before been exported would apply themselves to the manufacture of the protected articles, and thus bring them down to their own level very quickly. Spitalfields was invaded by Manchester before it was by Lyons. During the war, and for a number of years, while the cotton trade entirely or nearly was confined to the British, there was little attempt to make silk goods in the British provincial manufacturing towns, and Spitalfields had the trade nearly to itself. But the first distresses of Spitalfields, after the war closed, arose from home competition, and not from the importation of foreign goods. During the period of total prohibition, and before Manchester adopted the manufacture, the periods of distress in Spitalfields must have arisen from changes of demand in a confined market. Manchester devoted itself to the manufacture of silk goods as soon as the cotton trade began to fail them in some degree, and the profits of the manufactories in Spitalfields were reduced. There was an interval of very considerable distress in the cotton manufacture between the high prices of the war and the settling down of the trade to its own level, and then Manchester began to think of the silk trade.

Mr. Hume, in the course of his examination, stated that he could not conceive any circumstances under which a protective duty could confer a permanent and general benefit upon the community. While it operates in favor of the party intended to be protected, it is a tax upon the community, and there is always the risk of its not being able to support itself by its own natural strength; and the protection may some day fail of keeping it up. The real question at issue is, said he, "Do we propose to serve the nation or to serve particular individuals?"

Mr. Hume was persuaded that, from all he had noticed and heard, every protection in some degree lessens the efforts of the party protected to meet his competitors in the market, and that it had, in a most peculiar degree, that operation upon the human mind. "It is rather before my own positive recollection," he said, "but in conversations long ago, with older men

* For an abstract of the report of the committee of the House of Commons, on import duties, and the evidence of John M'Gregor and John Bowring, see *Merchants' Magazine* for August and November, Vol. V. pp. 145 and 422.

in the woollen trade, I have learnt that at the time of Mr. Pitt's commercial treaty with France, the great import which came upon us was the French broadcloths. Previous to that, our own ordinary cloths were entirely protected by the prohibition of the other. They were of a uniform and very inferior character. In the first instance, the French cloths had a very great sale in this country; the habit was always to order a coat of French cloth; and no tailor thought of making out a bill without putting the words, 'Coat of French cloth;' and my informant assured me that that habit of so charging, lasted many years after there was scarcely a piece of French cloth come into the country. The manufacturers of this country, feeling the stimulus of a competition, soon set themselves seriously to work, to see whether they could not make cloth as good as the French; and the result has been, that, up to a certain point, short of some very exquisite productions, such as are hardly ever required in use, the English make cloths better for the price than the French do, and consequently they have retained the trade to themselves."

Mr. Hume believed that all foreign countries, in imposing their duties, have been led by the example of the English. They imagine that England has risen to its present state of prosperity through the system of protection, and that they have only to adopt the same system in order to succeed in a like manner. He felt the strongest confidence that if the English were to give up their protective system altogether, it would be impossible for other countries to retain theirs much longer. Hence, he would remove the British protection without any other foreign country removing theirs, and this, even without asking them. "For," continued he, "I dislike treating with foreign countries upon any subject except navigation, and that for this reason, that there would be waste in the matter of carriage between different countries; it would end in the ship always going empty one way on both sides: this would be an enormous waste, from which every country would suffer in its commerce. And, again, a ship in one place is a ship in another; there is no difficulty in the comparison, but there is a difficulty in comparing one description of goods which one country makes with a totally different description made in another, and equal terms can hardly be made; but I feel quite confident if we were entirely to drop our system of protection, in a very little time it would be a race with other countries which should be first, or rather, which should avoid to be the last, to come in for the benefit of that trade which we would then open. I should make our laws according to what I deemed best, which would certainly be to give the freest possible introduction of the goods of other nations into our country, and I should leave others to take advantage of it, or not, as they thought fit. There can be no doubt that if we imported from any country any considerable quantity of goods, and the manufactures of that country were protected, the producers of those goods which we took would very soon find the great difficulty they had in getting their returns; and instead of our soliciting the governments of those countries to admit our goods, our advocates for that admission would be in the country itself; they would arise from the exporters of the goods which we received. I think that we should settle our commerce better by ourselves than by attempting to make arrangements with other countries. We make proposals to them; they do not agree to those. We then after that feel a repugnance to doing that which we ought perhaps in the first

instance to have done of our own accord ; and I go upon the principle that it is impossible for us to import too much, that we may be quite sure that the export will follow in some form or other, and that the making of the articles to be so exported will be an employment infinitely more beneficial to this country than that which may be thus superseded. I feel perfectly confident that the country is amply capable of devoting itself to profitable trades, so that the general prosperity of the country should be increased; although, in the earlier stages of the removal of those duties, some few branches might be distressed, and some lost."

In expressing his views in relation to articles of food in Great Britain, Mr. Hume said that they are the first things upon which he would remove the prohibitive and protective duties. "It is clear," continued he, "that this country stands in need of a vast deal of agricultural produce beyond its production, which is not to be measured merely by the quantity of corn which we occasionally import, because we habitually import very largely of those articles that are the produce of the land, and suited to be raised in this country, besides corn, and which shows that the power of supply is very much strained. Although we view it chiefly in the article of corn, we import a very large quantity of other commodities, commonly and habitually, such as are the produce of our own soil, or fit to be so ; and this proves clearly that we want more than we can produce. The exclusion of supply in such a case is cruel privation."

It was the opinion of Mr. Hume, that all those protective duties are in fact a direct tax upon the community, by raising the price of every one of those articles to the consumer. "I cannot analyze the charge," said he, "which I pay in any other way, than that part of it is the price of the commodity, and part is a duty, though it goes out of my private pocket into another private pocket, instead of that of the public, which cannot add to the wealth of the country, because it is clear that we consume commodities at a greater price than is the necessary price ; and consequently we waste labor and capital in the production, and waste can never ultimately do good, at least to a nation, although some individuals may thrive upon it."

Mr. Hume maintained, that if there is any difference in the cost of living in Great Britain and in other countries, or that the British are under disadvantages in competition with them, it chiefly arises from the protective system. "With our great command of trade," said he, "our navigation, our capital, and our geographical position, if trade in this country was perfectly free, and we were enabled to obtain in the cheapest markets, upon even terms, all the commodities we want, I can see no reason why this should not be one of the cheapest countries to live in that any civilized populous country can be. There are many matters in which density of population leads to cheapness."

Mr. Hume was in favor of a total abolition of the corn laws. He could not see any ground whatever for any countervailing tax upon corn, nor any thing in the principle of protection that is peculiar to corn. "British corn," said he, "does not contribute to the public revenue; there is, therefore, no charge upon it to be countervailed."

It has often been asserted by those in favor of the existing corn laws of Great Britain, that if those laws were totally abolished, and consequently that part of the provisions and food consumed in that country were brought in

from abroad, a great deal of land would be thrown out of cultivation. In reference to this assertion, Mr. Hume said, "By throwing land out of cultivation, I presume is meant converting arable land into grass-land. It is a wrong term, I think, to use, though I know it is a common term. I believe that much land would be thrown out of arable cultivation, and I believe that one of the great evils of our agriculture is, the misappropriation of the soil; I believe there is a great deal too large a proportion of land under the plough and too small a portion under grass. The difficulty of raising lean stock in this country for the purpose of fattening is so great, that it is the chief cause of the high prices of meat; and I am quite persuaded that if a very large breadth of that arable land which can scarcely be cultivated to advantage were turned back to grass, the effect would be, to reduce the quantity of corn produced in this country so much, as to make it impossible for the foreigner to fill the vacuum at a low price, and that the general result would be, that it would produce a lower price of meat, there being a power of increased consumption in the present state of the country in the article of meat that is almost immeasurable. When we reflect upon the extremely small portion of meat eaten every day by the most robust laborers in the country, who are of course by far the most numerous portion of the population, if we were only to suppose them to have every day a fair moderate meal of meat, the increase of demand for meat, and for inferior meat—for cattle not fatted to the highest pitch of perfection, such as would be suitable to the produce of land of inferior qualities—would be so great, that there would be no want of good employment for any of the land that we possess within our boundaries. I think that the corn laws have had a tendency to bring the poor lands into cultivation, and to break up land which had better have remained in grass. If the question means waste land, there can be no doubt that the demand for produce has led to the breaking up of commons, and so far that is a great benefit; but it by no means follows that it should be kept permanently under the plough when there is a much greater demand for grass. With regard to the effect of the protection on our corn, that can hardly be said to have been the cause of the breaking up of so much land, because I believe it is in the knowledge of most people that the era in which the lands were chiefly broken up was during the period of the war, and that corn was being imported without any restraint whatever through the whole of that period. I believe that many parties have since repented that they have broken up their lands."

Mr. Hume attributed the increase in the price of land in Great Britain to the start in manufactures which took place in that country towards the end of the last century. He stated that "the war led in the first instance to what may be said to have been a wasteful consumption of food; a large portion of people who were subsisting at home with the greatest economy, were converted into soldiers and sailors, and were supported at the public expense; but the great peculiarity of that period was the commencement of the great increase of our manufactures, the bringing to perfection of Mr. Arkwright's system, the introduction of steam power, and the vast improvement of machinery. We were the first to adopt those improvements, and from the circumstance of the rest of the world being so much more disadvantageously placed in the war of that time, they were then unable to follow us; but time and peace have altered the case much, and

we cannot expect to reap the same benefit after a certain period from any new discovery, however great it may be, that we did in the earlier stages. The cause of the increase in the value of land was the start in manufactures; but we kept the start the longer in reason of the war."

In speaking of the distinction between the colonial and the home produce, Mr. Hume contended that the planter in Jamaica looks as much to his protection as the manufacturer in Spitalfields and Manchester does; the effect to him would be the same. He said, "I conceive that the protective system ought properly to be removed entirely, and not partially; that one of the greatest burdens upon our industry is the protective system, and that if you were to leave that in ninety-nine articles, and take it off in the hundredth, the party having it taken off in the hundredth would be aggrieved. The protection on corn here affects the cost of produce even in Jamaica." "I am strongly of opinion," continued he, "that all our colonies would be able to compete with the world, and to become exceedingly prosperous, if they themselves had free trade offered to them; and, having granted that boon to them, I think it would be wholly unnecessary to support them by any protection in their commodities in this country. At the same time I must be understood, that they must be colonies that are placed in all respects upon an equal footing with those countries which produce similar commodities. I cannot conceive, that having thirty years ago abolished the slave trade, and now abolished slavery itself, that any question of free trade can arise between Jamaica and Cuba; Cuba, with abundance of rich and fresh soil, not only having the advantage of employing slaves, whatever that may be, but notoriously importing the enormous amount of 40,000 or 50,000 slaves every year: they have, in fact, the slave trade and slavery; and as the laws of this country have deprived the planter in Jamaica of that means of raising his produce, I conceive that that is the question, like several others, that are taken entirely out of the category of free trade. I consider, for instance, that our navigation is interfered with by the laws which are made for the support of the commercial marine, for the benefit of the state marine, and therefore I conceive that the navigation question is not, except beyond a certain point, a question of free trade. I think, also, upon the subject of the health of the country, the quarantine laws or regulations, whatever impediments they may throw in the way of trade, assuming that it is only by those regulations we avoid the plague, (however doubtful that may be,) still as long as those measures are employed, that is not a question for free trade. There are therefore the cases of national defence, the health of the country, and free labor, involving matters of security and morality, which are taken out of the class of free trade, because they are by the law interfered with, for purposes independent of trade. If the British West India Islands could be placed either the one way or the other upon an equal footing, on general principles, with Cuba, Brazil, Porto Rico, and the foreign producers generally of the same commodities, I can entertain no doubt that they would be able to compete with them upon equal terms; and the reason I have for thinking so is, that till a few years ago this country was the mart for sugar and coffee and rum. We produced very largely beyond our consumption, and we were the chief suppliers of other markets. Therefore, I conceive that the duties upon timber, shingles, oak staves, and headings, and other kinds of timber, as well as on beef, pork, and pro-

visions of all kinds should be entirely taken away. I believe that they are not levied much for the purposes of revenue ; of course where finance interfered, another question would arise ; but if the colony could get its revenue from other sources, those necessary supplies for what were termed the stores of the estates, and food for the negro population, ought, I conceive, to be the last articles to be taxed."

On being asked what course he would recommend as respects those protective duties and high duties existing in the British tariff, both as to number and amount, Mr. Hume replied, "I conceive that very great amendment might be made in what I would term the scheme of the tariff. I think that a very large number of commodities might be placed together at some exceedingly low and nominal duty without any injury to the revenue, and with great benefit to the parties importing them, because it would relieve them in many instances from the necessity of warehousing. I think that for the like purpose a reduction of duties might also be made on more productive articles, without much loss ; but if it should be held that the revenue could not bear the loss, an exceedingly small increase, and which could hardly be objected to, upon a few great articles, would very easily make up the sum. If, for instance, you require £200,000 or £300,000 a year in the customs' duties, with a view of accomplishing a more perfect scheme of collection, and that that sum could not be spared, it is very readily seen how easily that might be raised by a halfpenny a pound upon tea, a penny a gallon on wine ; a few trifling charges of that kind upon some of the great articles would give the money requisite."

We conclude by inserting the following from the evidence of Mr. John Benjamin Smith, president of the chamber of commerce of Manchester, consisting of merchants, bankers, manufacturers, and traders of the town and neighborhood, and representing generally the commercial opinion of the town. He gave several instances in which the opinions of the chamber had been given in favor of free trade. In March, 1824, the chamber passed the following resolution—"Resolved unanimously, That in the progress which ministers and parliament are making towards a revision and liberalization of our commercial system, this meeting think it necessary to request the directors of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce to call their attention to the overwhelming restriction under which the commercial interests of this country are placed by the present state of the corn laws, which not only tends to give a factitious value to the most important article of human food, but to throw obstacles in the way of mercantile operations by materially augmenting the difficulty of procuring returns."

In 1838, there was a petition of the president, vice-president, and directors of the chamber of commerce of Manchester, for the repeal of the corn laws, with this prayer—"That condemning as injurious all monopolies, whether agricultural or commercial, and convinced that the general good will be best promoted by an unobstructed interchange of all commodities with every nation, your petitioners, while they acknowledge the necessity of imposing duties upon importations, for the purpose of raising a revenue to meet the necessary expenses of the state, do not recognise the wisdom or justice of levying restrictive duties upon any one article for the protection of a particular interest ; but on the contrary, they desire to see, both in manufactures and in agriculture, the principles of free trade fully established, and they therefore pray your honorable house to repeal the

existing laws relating to the importation of foreign corn, and to take such measures as will gradually but steadily remove all existing impediments to the free employment of industry and capital.

In November, 1839, resolutions were passed unanimously—"That this meeting having heard with the deepest interest the able address just delivered by Dr. Bowring upon the subject of our commercial relations with the states composing the German League, earnestly invites public attention to the incontrovertible evidence thus afforded, that the governments and people of Germany are desirous of exchanging their productions for the commodities of this country, proving from undoubted authority that we are prevented solely by our restrictive laws from embracing the manifold advantages thus offered to us. Whilst this meeting is of opinion that the welfare both of the capitalists and laborers composing the manufacturing community imperatively calls for the removal of all legislative restraints upon the trade of the country, it earnestly desires the abolition or modification of the import duties on the productions of Germany, and that a liberal commercial intercourse may be established with a people whose institutions, common origin, and character, peculiarly adapt them to become the friends and allies of Great Britain."—"That this meeting regards the present as the proper occasion for reiterating its adherence to the opinion so often declared by this chamber, that the prosperity, peace, and happiness of the people of this and other nations can be alone promoted by the adoption of those just principles of trade which shall secure to all the right of a free interchange of their respective productions; and this meeting, on behalf of the great community whose interests it represents, feels especially called upon to declare its disapprobation of all those restrictive laws which, whether intended for the protection of the manufacturing or agricultural classes, must, in so far as they are operative, be injurious to the rest of the nation, unjust to the world at large, and in direct hostility to the beneficent designs of Providence."

ART. IV.—THE BRITISH CORN LAWS.

IN the number of the *Merchants' Magazine* for December, 1841, we gave a short general outline of the origin, history, operation, and effect of the corn laws of Great Britain. At the conclusion of that article we remarked, that it would be interesting to consider the effect the repeal of the corn laws would have on the trade between this country and England. Other engagements have prevented an earlier preparation of this paper; but it will perhaps be now interesting to the general reader, for whom this article, like the last, is particularly intended, to examine the statements here given, in a form as condensed as possible.

Great Britain and the United States are intimately connected in their commercial relations. Our trade with England is much larger than with any other nation, as may be seen by the following statement, comprising, first, the total imports into the United States; secondly, the proportion of the same coming from Great Britain; thirdly, amount of exports to Great Britain.

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Total imports into the U. S.</i>	<i>From G. Britain.</i>	<i>Exports to G. Britain.</i>
1831	\$103,191,134	\$24,539,214	\$26,329,352
1832	101,129,266	36,921,265	30,810,975
1833	108,118,311	37,845,824	32,363,450
1834	126,521,332	47,242,807	44,212,097
1835	149,895,742	61,249,527	52,180,977
1836	189,980,835	78,645,968	57,875,213
1837	140,989,217	44,886,943	54,683,797
1838	113,717,404	44,861,973	52,176,610
1839	157,609,560	65,964,588	59,986,212

A glance at the foregoing statement is sufficient to show the magnitude of our trade with England. Great as it is it might be largely increased, and to the mutual advantage of the two nations, were it not for her restrictions upon the importation of bread-stuffs, which are the staple productions of a great section of this country.

We import from England now to the full amount of the products which England receives from us; and the greatest proportion of what she does receive from us is the single article cotton. We very frequently find ourselves in debt for a balance of trade, and heavy shipments of specie are required to discharge it. This causes frequent and sudden contractions of our currency, and our money markets are often subjected to a most uncomfortable pressure. Indeed it may well be doubted whether there can ever be much steadiness to the trade between the two countries so long as we are kept dependent for the means of paying for our imports on a single article of produce.

The balance of trade may be suddenly thrown against us by causes which we cannot foresee, and over which we have no control. A few weeks bad weather in July or August may injure the English harvest so as to cause a heavy demand for foreign grain. The nearest ports on the continent are resorted to, and the Bank of England finds the country suddenly and alarmingly in debt. The contraction which follows depresses prices, and among others our great article of export, cotton; and we in our turn may suddenly find ourselves in debt to England. Were our bread-stuffs admitted, subject to duties and regulations of a permanent character, and free from the complicated machinery of the present system, we should be in a measure free from these sudden drains upon our specie; as the fall in the price of cotton would in some degree be counterbalanced by a rise in the price of bread-stuffs. And even should the balance of trade turn against us, our flour would be a good substitute for our gold in discharging it.

There cannot be a regular export of flour from this country to England until there is a radical change in her tariff of duties. In 1829, the price of corn in England was 71s. 6d. per quarter, on the 6th of August, at which price the duty on flour would be about 97 cents per barrel. Had a merchant in New York acted upon this intelligence, and made a shipment of flour, to arrive out about the end of September, it would have found the price of corn reduced to 55s. 4d., and the duty payable on the flour four dollars and seventy-six cents. At the distance we are from market such operations are too dangerous for prudent men to engage in.*

But with free trade, or a moderate permanent fixed duty, large quanti-

* See note at the end of this article.

ties of bread-stuffs could be exported to England with a profit, as may be seen by the following statement showing the comparative prices of flour in England and the United States for fifteen years, from 1826 to 1840, inclusive; the price of flour in England being calculated from the annual averages, and expressed in federal money at \$4.80 to the pound sterling, for convenience in making comparison; and the prices for the United States taken from the average as indicated by the Philadelphia price current—viz:

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Price of barrel of flour in Eng.</i>	<i>Price of barrel of flour in U. S.</i>
1826	about \$8.40	\$4.65
1827	" 8.10	5.23
1828	" 8.64	5.60
1829	" 9.60	6.33
1830	" 9.24	4.83
<hr/> Average in 5 yrs. \$8.80		<hr/> \$5.33
1831	about \$9.60	5.67
1832	" 8.40	5.72
1833	" 7.68	5.63
1834	" 6.90	5.17
1835	" 5.76	5.88
<hr/> Average in 5 yrs. \$7.67		<hr/> \$5.61
1836	about \$6.96	\$7.99
1837	" 8.04	9.37
1838	" 9.86	7.79
1839	" 10.44	6.50
1840	not much under 1839	5.00
<hr/> Average in 4 yrs. \$8.70		<hr/> In 5 years \$7.33

The harvest in England was considered as follows: The years 1833, '34, '35 and '36 were years producing a large crop; 1826, '27, '32 and '40, an average crop; 1829, '30, '31, '37 and '39, short of average; and 1828 and '38, years of scarcity. But at no period has England produced enough for her own consumption, but is constantly importing from abroad; although she contrives to keep the time the supply will be required very uncertain. The following table will show the quantity of wheat imported into England for consumption, from 1828 to 1839, inclusive; and a comparison of the quantities in each year, with the prices in the table above, shows how completely the corn law system excludes every bushel not indispensably necessary to save the nation from famine.

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Quantity of wheat imported into Great Britain, (bushels.)</i>	<i>Year.</i>	<i>Quantity of wheat imported into Great Britain, (bushels.)</i>
1828	6,700,000	1834	507,000
1829	11,000,000	1835	200,000
1830	13,700,000	1836	250,000
1831	12,000,000	1837	2,100,000
1832	2,500,000	1838	15,000,000
1833	658,000	1839	22,000,000

The total consumption of wheat in Great Britain is estimated at 104 millions of bushels. It appears therefore from the statement above, that in four years only, out of the twelve, has she nearly supplied herself; in two years out of three she is compelled to import quantities varying from two and a half to twenty per cent of her whole consumption.

The quantity of land under cultivation in England is nearly 80 per cent of the whole surface of the country. About ten per cent of the remainder is supposed to be capable of being cultivated, and the residue is of little value. The proportions in Scotland and Ireland are less; but in all Great Britain the quantity of land under cultivation is more than three fourths of the whole quantity capable of being improved, and of course much the best proportion. The remaining part being much of it inferior land, the production of wheat in Great Britain cannot be much increased.

The extravagant prices of grain have brought into cultivation much land not well adapted to the cultivation of wheat, and which might be more profitably employed for grazing, under a different system. Mr. J. D. Hume states, as the result of fifty years' observation, his belief that too large a proportion of the lands in England are under the plough, and too small a proportion under grass. Under a system admitting the regular importation of grain, a considerable quantity of the land under cultivation would be turned into grazing land, the home supply of wheat consequently diminished, and a larger quantity wanted from abroad.

If Great Britain maintains her present superiority over other nations in her manufactures, a repeal of the corn laws, by reducing the price of bread, and extending the market for her manufactured goods, will cause a great increase in the consumption of bread, especially among the manufacturing population.

It does not therefore seem unreasonable to suppose that Great Britain must hereafter be a large customer to other nations for bread-stuffs. Under the present system, so great is our distance from her, we do not reap the benefit of the demand she occasionally makes; but under a steady system of trade in corn, it can be shown that our trade with her may be largely increased.

As before remarked, the present consumption of wheat in Great Britain is about 104 million bushels annually. Owing to the present corn laws, even this consumption is not so great as it would be if bread was not, by their operation, raised far above its natural price. At the same rate of consumption with the United States, the quantity needed for her annual consumption would be at least 130 million bushels; and allowing her annual production to average 95 millions, she would require a supply from foreign sources of 35 million bushels per annum, without allowing for any decrease in her production in consequence of poor lands being turned back to grass, on account of not paying the cost of cultivating wheat at reduced prices.

The consumption of other descriptions of grain—viz, barley, rye, oats, peas, beans, &c., amount to 300 million bushels annually; of which, according to Mr. Colquhoun, about 45 per cent, or 135 millions, are consumed by man. It is fair to expect an increased consumption of all these descriptions of grain, but we have not the data at hand on which to base any thing like an accurate estimate. There is however reasonable ground

for the expectation that, with free trade, or at a moderate fixed duty, Great Britain would afford a market for bread-stuffs to an amount equal annually to the value of the cotton she now receives from us.

The question then arises, From what part of the world would she get this supply? We answer, from this country. First, because we can supply it cheaper; and secondly, we can open a market, almost unlimited, for her manufactures of linen, worsted, cotton, woollen, hardware, earthenware, &c., if she will receive our grain in exchange.

The following are the prices of wheat in Dantzic, (the principal port for the shipment of that article to England,) from 1829 to 1838—viz:

<i>Year.</i>		<i>Lowest.</i>		<i>Highest.</i>	
1829	from	30s. 8d.	to	60s.	per quarter.
1830	"	29s. 9d.	"	48s. 2d.	" "
1831	"	40s. 2d.	"	49s. 6d.	" "
1832	"	28s. 10d.	"	42s. 6d.	" "
1833	"	26s. 4d.	"	32s.	" "
1834	"	23s. 2d.	"	28s. 6d.	" "
1835	"	20s. 1d.	"	24s. 11d.	" "
1836	"	21s. 10d.	"	34s. 10d.	" "
1837	"	23s. 2d.	"	33s. 11d.	" "
1838	"	24s. 1d.	"	61s. 2d.	" "

This list of prices exhibits some degree of correspondence to the prices in England; the prices for 1834, '35 and '36 being very low, and in other years carried up to a rate more or less extravagant, according to the prices in the English market.

Mr. Jacob has pretty conclusively shown, that 28s. to 30s. per quarter is the lowest price at which any considerable quantity of wheat can be permanently provided for exportation from Poland. To this price must be added the freight and other charges to Dantzic; loss by pilfering and sprouting, commission, warehousing, and other expenses at Dantzic; freight, insurance, and shipping charges to London—amounting in all to 20s. per quarter; and making the cost of the wheat in London 48s. duty free, which is equal to about seven dollars per barrel for flour, delivered at London from on board ship, and without duty—being about the price of 1834, and below which it would not fall, excepting in time of an excessive supply.

At this rate, after paying freight, insurance, &c., there would remain a price that would more than remunerate the wheat-grower in this country; and, if the foregoing estimate of Mr. Jacob is correct, there can be little doubt but bread-stuffs of all kinds may be shipped from this country to England, cheaper than from any other part of the world.

To our ability to produce grain there seems to be no limit, as may be seen by the following statement:

	<i>Acres.</i>
The quantity of land in England is, in round numbers,	32,300,000
do. Wales,	4,800,000
do. Scotland,	19,700,000
do. Ireland,	19,500,000
do. various islands,	1,100,000

Total number of acres, 77,400,000

And the total production of wheat before estimated as averaging 95 million bushels.

Leaving out of view New York, Pennsylvania, and other wheat-growing sections of the country, we take the six northwestern states and territories, viz :

	<i>Total quantity of Land.</i>	<i>Acres sold.</i>	<i>Production of wheat in 1839.</i>
Ohio,	24,800,000	13,000,000	16,300,000 bushels.
Indiana,	23,450,000	15,300,000	4,150,000 “
Illinois,	36,000,000	11,750,000	2,750,000 “
Michigan,	40,000,000	9,200,000	2,000,000 “
Wisconsin,	47,300,000	2,000,000	—
Iowa,	7,050,000	1,050,000	150,000 “
	<hr/> 178,600,000	<hr/> 52,300,000*	<hr/> 25,350,000 “

Here then is a territory, to which channels of communication are now opened, already producing twenty-five of the eighty-four million bushels of wheat now raised in the United States, and capable of producing the quantity requisite for the consumption of fifty millions of people; into which a constant stream of emigration is now flowing—whose inhabitants are now only deterred from increasing the production of grain largely, by the want of a market; and who, should the corn laws of Great Britain be repealed, would consume any amount of English manufactures for which their great staple would be taken in exchange.

We see, then, how great would be the effect of the opening of the English market to our grain: a great increase of trade with England—a mighty impulse given to western industry—a great increase of wealth in these states, enabling them to consume largely of foreign and domestic manufactures, and to liquidate the load of debt which they now have not the means to discharge; also a great increase of business in the Atlantic cities.

There is every reason to believe that the repeal or modification of the corn laws is the only thing to prevent our trade with England from *diminishing* rapidly. Great efforts are making by her to produce a supply of cotton in her Indian possessions; and if these efforts are successful, as there is every reason to believe they will be,† her exports to this country must diminish to as great an extent as does her demand for our cotton—it being an axiom in political economy, that no nation can regularly sell that does not buy in return.

Our trade with Great Britain has not increased for several years past. Even an increased production of cotton, the great article she takes from us, seems to be counterbalanced by a decline in price to an equal extent. This is made apparent by the following statement, which also shows conclusively that our trade with Great Britain must diminish, if her demand for our cotton falls off, unless some other article of export can be substituted for it.

* A large quantity of the land sold is yet uncultivated.

† Calculations have recently been made, showing that cotton may be profitably imported into this country from India, at a duty of 20 per cent.

Year.	Total crop of cotton in the United States. Bags.	Quantity shipped to England. Bags.	Estimated price per bag, from the Mobile Price Current.	Total amount of cotton exported to England.	Total amount of all exports to England.
1835	1,254,328	763,238	\$55 00	41,978,090	52,180,977
1836	1,360,728	765,236	58 00	44,383,768	57,875,213
1837	1,422,980	845,118	50 00	42,255,900	54,683,797
1838	1,801,497	1,124,192	40 00	44,967,680	52,176,610
1839	1,360,522	813,225	52 00	42,318,900	59,986,212
1840	2,177,835	1,245,007	35 00	43,575,246	.

It is often remarked that a repeal of the corn laws in England would not increase our trade with that country, as our market vibrates upward or downward according to the prices in England. That this is the fact, under the present system, there can be no doubt. At present we have no market there, and consequently are not prepared to supply a demand from thence. Let there be a permanent open market, and the quantity needed will be produced, be it more or less. The same reasoning would prove that Great Britain cannot get a supply from any quarter. The market in Dantzic, as before shown, under the demand from England, rose in 1838 from 24s. 1d. to 61s. 2d. The French, on a failure of the English harvest, have closed their ports and prevented the exportation of corn at any price. All that is wanted for this country, is an open market and a fixed duty, or free importation, and we can furnish any quantity that may be required.

A feeling of self-interest as well as of philanthropy, may lead us to hope that the day is not distant when the corn laws of England will be repealed. The success of the conservatives at the late election by no means settles the question, the result having been brought about by a union of parties diametrically opposed in their principles, and agreeing only in a single point—opposition to the Melbourne ministry. The influence enlisted in favor of a repeal is already so great, that action on the part of the new ministry cannot much longer be postponed or evaded. The people of England are crying out for *repeal*, and their cry must be heard.

NOTE.—As a further illustration of the risk attending shipments of flour to England, we give the following quotations from a speech of Wm. Cripps, Esq. of Nottingham, at a great meeting held in Derby a few months since :

“ Last year, by way of making returns to this country, his house in New York purchased 12000 barrels flour.”—“ He paid duty on 1949 barrels, viz, £801, and sold 4675 barrels in bond. If he had paid duty upon that also at the time he imported it, which was between the 18th of April and 15th of May last, the duty would then have been £2,729. But if he had waited till the last week in August, the duty would have been only £520. The first week in October the duty on the same lot would have been £4,112; the first week in November it would have been £4,719; and the first week in December £5,133!

“ Such was the risk a merchant runs in importing flour from the United States.”—“ He had once imported flour, but he should deserve to be branded as a gambler, and have his credit destroyed, if he were to venture again upon a like experiment.”

ART. V.—MICHIGAN: ITS COMMERCE AND RESOURCES.

THE young but improving state of Michigan exhibits, in the extent and fertility of its territory, as well as in the lake navigation by which it is surrounded, extraordinary agricultural and commercial advantages. With a territorial domain embracing an area of about sixty-five thousand square miles, it presents a soil of unequal quality, but the greater part is favorable to cultivation. The two grand divisions of the state are the upper and lower peninsula: the upper, a comparatively cold, rocky, barren, primitive and mountainous region, stretching along the shores of Lake Superior; and the lower, a more level and alluvial soil, distinguished for its agricultural production.

The lower peninsula consists of several species of soil, and in its different parts is distinguished by a marked difference in its scenery. Along the borders of the lakes the land is low and level, stretching in a belt from eight to fifteen miles broad upon their shores, and is covered with dense masses of forest, which in summer, when the vegetation is in full bloom, cast upon the earth an almost continual twilight. The soil composing this species of land is a deep-brown clay, which is productive of the ordinary crops that may be found in this latitude, or of a deep and black vegetable mould that yields abundant harvests. As we advance across the belt before described, we arrive upon a more undulating and picturesque region, not broken so frequently as the low tracts which we have mentioned by marshes and creeks, but extending in sweeping undulations over a dark sandy soil that changes into black on exposure to the sun when turned up by the plough. Here and there a grove of dense forest is sprinkled over the face of the scenery, which in some districts extends through nearly entire counties; but the larger portion of the soil is composed of what are termed "oak openings," that consist of scattered oaks, separated by the distance of between ten and a hundred feet, the landscape being occasionally variegated by rivers, small streams, and little lakes, which dot the country at frequent points, and constitute a beautiful feature in its aspect. In those parts of the territory last described the soil is dry, presenting in the openings generally excellent roads, while in summer a gorgeous carpet of purple flowers covers the whole surface of the earth. In passing through the interior we not unfrequently come upon a different species of land covered with burr-oaks, situated from ten to fifty feet apart, which are denominated burr-oak plains. These tracts are generally esteemed by the farmers as of the greatest value, inasmuch as the soil, consisting of a deep-brown sand, is highly productive of wheat crops, and may without difficulty be cleared, from the small size of the scattered trees by which they are covered. The kind of soil to which we last alluded sometimes borders on other species of land which is entirely distinct from any that we have mentioned, and which is denominated "prairies," that are either wet or dry. The dry prairies are deemed the most valuable species of soil, being generally preferred by the farmers for cultivation, free from trees, and composed of a deep jet-black vegetable mould. This kind of land is without doubt the most productive of any soil that can be found in the state, yielding very large crops of corn and other grains; the wheat which it produces, however, being less clean than that which is found in the timbered lands and oak openings. Another species of land is

termed barrens, and is composed of a rolling country, with a dry and sandy soil, covered with a thin layer of stunted oaks or bushes, which produces very good, although not the largest crops. These different species of soil, while they present to the traveller a beautiful configuration of scenery, and afford a variety of products, cause the territory to be impressed with much greater interest on that account.

Of the upper peninsula, much cannot be said in favor of its agricultural advantages. The soil is cold and primitive, broken by mountain chains and rugged cliffs ; yet its mineral resources are said to be considerable, particularly the production of copper, a rock of that metal of many thousand pounds weight, now lying within its boundaries upon the shores of Lake Superior, at the mouth of the Ontonagon river. Although from recent geological investigations there appears to be no doubt that it is possessed of very great mineral wealth, still it will be probably a long time before its shores will be permanently colonized. Even now among the loose stones found along the Lake Superior coast, the different minerals of prase, jasper, carnelian, agate, sardonyx, and others of some value, are discovered.

The mineral resources of the state are as yet but partially developed. The soil of the lower peninsula, as has been before remarked, is of alluvial formation, and ledges of sandstone are perceived in the counties of Hillsdale, Jackson, Calhoun, Kalamazoo, Livingston, Eaton, Barry, Shiawassee, and Clinton, besides other portions of the state. A species of slate of a green color is also perceived upon the shore of Lake Huron, and indications of coal are apparent in the counties of Ingham, Eaton, and Shiawassee, and gray limestone abounds in different parts of the state. Beds of gypsum or plaster occur upon the banks of the Grand river, near the Grand Rapids, which will prove of importance to the state in future time, while salt springs for the manufacture of salt are scattered through a considerable portion of that part of the territory upon the banks of this river, as well as in various parts of the interior. Bog iron ore, clay, marl, and sand, besides numerous springs, tinged with mineral qualities, are discovered in the eastern counties. Among those that may be mentioned are sulphur springs, which are found not only in the eastern portion of the peninsula, but also in the interior.

We have alluded to the streams that abound in the interior, which, although tending to adorn the scenery, and furnishing water-power for the propulsion of sawmills, gristmills, and other establishments worked by machinery, are not generally favorable for navigation. Among those which may be mentioned as the most prominent, are the Raisin, the Grand river, the Kalamazoo, the St. Joseph, the Huron, the Clinton, the Saginaw, and the Ontonagon. The Detroit, the St. Clair, and the St. Mary's, may be properly termed straits, which connect the eastern and more level portion of the state. In the eastern part of the state, or that portion which is generally level and low, the streams and rivers run slow and sluggish ; but as we advance into the interior portion, where hill and dale abound, the streams course more rapidly over their beds of clay and sand. Among the most beautiful streams of the interior is the St. Joseph, which, though shallow, is transparent, and watering banks of great fertility, comprised of oak lands and prairies, flows into Lake Michigan. The Kalamazoo is also a streamlet, narrow, although of considerable transparency and beauty, which, watering some of the richest portions of the state, empties

into the same lake. But the largest river in the interior of the state is the Grand river, which affords not only a convenient channel of navigation for a considerable distance from its mouth, but also extensive manufacturing advantages that are now partially improved.

The feature which peculiarly distinguishes the state from any of those of the west, and renders it most favorable for inland commerce, are the great lakes which wash its shores, we mean Lake Erie, St. Clair, Huron, Michigan, and Superior. Constituting a vast chain of inland communication, embracing not only Michigan, but Ohio, Illinois, and Indiana, they afford a line of inland sea-board which is probably unexampled in any country, extending for thousands of miles from the remotest forests upon the borders of Lake Superior to the western boundaries of New York, and will doubtless in future time be the grand commercial avenue between this portion of the northwest and the eastern markets. With the gradual advance of emigration into this portion of the west, the light canoe of the Indian is giving place to the fleets of vessels and steamships that now dot their surfaces.

The larger lakes, as well as the interior waters of the state, abound in fish, some of them of the most valuable sorts, which are now taken in Lake Superior during the summer by the American Fur Company, whose traders are found scattered at widely separated points along its shores. Among those of a superior sort are the Mackinaw trout, the white fish, sturgeon, salmon trout, muskalunjuh, pickerel, pike, perch, herring, the rock bass, the white and black bass, catfish, trout, and gar, which constituted, during the earlier condition of the country, a very valuable article of food, as they do now of commerce. Among the most prominent of these are the white fish, which are not only peculiar to the lakes, but from the first colonization of the territory by the French explorers, have been highly celebrated; large quantities of trout, as well as the white fish, are taken upon the lakes and shipped to Ohio, New York, and Pennsylvania.

The subjoined statement derived from the Detroit Daily Advertiser, exhibits the progress of the lake fisheries at different periods, from 1835 to 1840:

“ With the immense business which is destined to be done on the western lakes, that of the fisheries should not be overlooked, as it has already become a considerable *item* of *exports*. The number and varieties of fish taken, are worthy of notice, and it is stated that no fresh waters known, can, in any respect, bear a comparison.

“ From the earliest period of the settlement on the shores of the lakes, fishing has been carried on to supply the inhabitants with a part of their food, but not until the past five years has fish become an article of export. Since that time, the business has rapidly increased. The number of barrels taken, so far as information can be gathered, in 1835, was 8,000, and in 1840 it reached 32,005 barrels.

“ The weight to which some of the fish attain is unparalleled except in the Mississippi—as follows :

<i>Names of Fish.</i>	<i>Greatest weight</i>	<i>Average.</i>
Sturgeon,	120 <i>lbs.</i>	70 <i>lbs.</i>
Trout,	60 “	10 to 20 “
Muskalunjuh, . . .	40 “	10 “ 15 “
Pickerel,	15 “	5 “ 6 “
Mullet,	10 “	3 “ 6 “

<i>Names of Fish.</i>	<i>Greatest weight.</i>	<i>Average.</i>
White fish,		2 to 3 <i>lbs.</i>
At the Sault Ste. Marie,		4 " 5 "
Perch,	1 "	
Roach,	1 "	
Black Bass,		2 " 3 "
Bill fish,		6 " 8 "
Catfish,		10 " 20 "
Sisquoele,		8 " 10 "

"The varieties usually taken for pickling are, trout, pickerel, white fish, and Sisquoele; the latter, however, is to be found only in Lake Superior.

"Since the projected canal at the Sault Ste. Marie has been suspended, Yankee enterprise, at great expense, in the absence of artificial locks, has surmounted the difficulty of getting over the falls leading from Lake Michigan to Lake Superior, and within the two past years, two vessels, by means of slides, rollers, &c., have reached the upper lake.

"Three vessels have also been built on Lake Superior by the American Fur Company. The two former vessels will hereafter be engaged in the fishing trade, in freighting salt, provisions, &c., to various points on the lakes, and returning with fish. Heretofore the American Fur Company have monopolized the trade. This will open a new era in the upper lake fisheries, as they are said to be inexhaustible.

"From the following table, of the amount of fish barreled, which was obtained from various sources, the rapid increase of the business will be seen:

	1836.	1837.	1840.
Lake Superior,	2,000	5,500	10,000
Mackinac,	1,200	800	4,000
Sault Ste. Marie,	300	600	2,555
Green Bay,	600		
Various points on Lake Huron,	500		
Fort Gratiot,	3,100	4,100	3,000
Shores of Lake Huron,	500	600	
On Detroit River,	4,000	2,500	3,550
Shores of Sanilac County,	.	.	500
St. Clair River,	1,000
Drummond's Island,	800
Twin Rivers,	1,500
Mouth of Mannistee River,	.	.	1,000
do. Sheboygan River,	.	.	275
Racine River,	225
Saginaw Bay,	500
Thunder Bay,	500
Beaver Island,	500
South Saginaw Bay,	500
Number of barrels,	12,200	14,100	35,005

"The average price of fish per barrel, for the five past years in Detroit, is 8 dollars, which gives a total value of the business in 1840, at two hundred fifty-six thousand and forty dollars. Thus, in its infancy, it adds this large amount annually to the wealth of Michigan; gives employ-

ment to a great number of persons; and allowing 600 barrels as freight for a vessel, it would require *fifty-four* to transport the article to market. Its importance in augmenting the wealth of the west, particularly in a few years, when the business is more extensively pursued, is not surpassed by any other species of traffic, and presents a marked example of productive labor.

“ There is one article in connection with it, that should be removed. The British side of the lake, also, abounds in fine fishing-grounds, but in consequence of a duty of one dollar per barrel, which our government impose on fish taken in British waters, but little has been done. It is to be hoped our senators and representatives in congress will bring forward the subject at the present session, and allow American fishermen, in American bottoms, to enter American ports, free of duty.”

As we have alluded to the fish that abound in the lake waters, it may be proper to mention the names of some of the wild animals which are found in the interior of the state. It is very clear that the mammoth once roamed through its forests, for its skeleton is now discovered below the surface. The buffalo was seen cropping the herbage upon the shores of Lake Erie during the time of Charlevoix, one hundred and twenty years since, but these have been driven by the progress of colonization to the bases of the Rocky Mountains. The elk and the moose were formerly found in its eastern portion, but have now retired to the more unsettled part of the state. The wolverine, the black or brown bear, the wolf, the elk, the deer, moose, lynx, wildcat, panther, fox, martin, racoon, porcupine, opossum, weasel, gopher, the black, red, gray, and striped squirrel, as well as various other animals, are discovered in the interior. It is well known that the fur trade, which, during the possession of the country by the French, as well as since that period by the English, and also since it came into the possession of the United States, constituted the principal occupation of the settlers, as well as the temporary explorers of the region around the lakes, derived its main profits from the beaver, the otter, the mink, the deer, and the buffalo, which formerly roamed through its vast solitudes, or inhabited the banks of the rivers and small streams of the interior. The smaller birds that are found in the same latitudes at the east, abound also in its forests. The grouse, or prairie hen, is often seen upon the prairies, and the wild turkey and the partridge take shelter in the woods. During particular seasons of the year the pigeon is seen in large flocks, filling the wilderness, and almost darkening the sun by their numbers. The eagle and the brant, the buzzard and the vulture of different kinds, the heron, the crow, the raven, and various species of owl, are also found; while the streams and shores of the lakes abound in various species of the wild duck, which feed upon the marshes that fringe them; and the wild goose and the swan are often startled from the rice swamps of the northern lakes.

We have briefly alluded to these general products of Michigan, as facts of considerable interest connected with the state, which, although they have but an indirect bearing upon its commerce, yet are directly connected with its resources.

It is somewhat extraordinary, that notwithstanding the long period since the state was originally colonized, the first permanent settlement having been made within it as early as 1701, under French auspices, by Antoine

de la Motte Cudillac, who in July of that year laid the foundation of Detroit; and although it continued for a century afterward to be the principal ranging ground of the northwestern fur trade; yet there is scarcely a monument of the existence of the early French settlers, excepting a scattered hut of a Frenchman, or the mouldering beams of some half-decayed chapel, to show us that the cross of the Catholic church has been upborne in these forests, even before the waters of Lake Erie had ever been ruffled by a single vessel. It is somewhat singular, also, that the early French engineers, at the head of whom was Robert de la Salle, should have selected their positions with so great skill and judgment, at those very points that were afterward the depots of whatever settlements were afforded by the country, and that they now constitute the most prominent points of settlement upon the northern lakes, and are destined to be the principal marts of its future trade.

It is only since the territory came into the hands of the United States, and the facilities of communication by the Erie canal, as well as by steam navigation, furnished the means of travel into the interior, that the state has advanced to any considerable importance. These two improvements, the establishment of the Erie canal, as well as navigation by steam, tended to furnish the means and motives not only for travel into the interior, but for the transportation of products, which at once brought the most valuable points of the territory into settlement and partial cultivation. As new explorations were made into the interior, new resources were laid open, and what was at first supposed by the credulous people of some of our eastern states as mere marsh and swamp, was discovered to present beautiful tracts of the most fertile soil, which required nothing but the plough and the husbandman to cause it to yield the most abundant harvests of wheat and corn, oats, rye, buckwheat, and all the products of this latitude.

In examining therefore the resources of the state of Michigan, we regard the fertility and beauty of its territory, the variety of its soil, as well as the extraordinary commercial advantages afforded by the chain of lake navigation that extends nearly around its entire boundaries, and reaching eastward to the state of New York, together with its proximity to the eastern markets, as constituting some of its principal advantages over many of the western states. The measure of its agricultural production is now considerable, and is likely to be much increased, as new tracts are brought under cultivation. Its wheat lands are not exceeded in value by those of any states of the west, and the farmer who gathers in his harvests in the interior, may now, with very little inconvenience, transport it in a few hours by the railroad, which is in full operation from Detroit to Jackson, to one of those elegant steamships which ply during the season of navigation from Detroit to Buffalo, the prominent western seaport of the empire state.

While upon the subject of internal improvement, it may perhaps be well to trace out those lines of transportation that have been projected through the interior of the state. There are three tracks of railroad proposed to be constructed across the peninsular portion, the northern, the middle, and the southern track. The northern is to commence at Palmer, on the St. Clair, and is designed to terminate at the Grand Rapids, in Kent county. The southern, starting from Monroe, and running through the

county of Monroe, westward, is designed to end at New Buffalo, upon Lake Michigan. The middle line is proposed to commence at Detroit, and running through the counties of Wayne, Washtenaw, Jackson, Calhoun, Kalamazoo, and Berrien, is designed to terminate at the mouth of the St. Joseph, upon Lake Michigan. As has been before remarked, this last track has been completed from Detroit to the village of Jackson, and the railroad cars are now in full operation. Besides these railroads, a canal, designed to commence at Mt. Clemens, and to terminate at Naples, upon the Kalamazoo river, has also been proposed, as well as the establishment of a ship canal around the Sault de Ste. Mary, to connect the navigation of the lakes. When we take into view the agricultural resources of the state, and its very valuable commercial advantages, sixty-one steamships, besides numerous sail vessels, plying to its principal port, Detroit, during the season of navigation, there appears nothing to prevent its future advance in wealth and importance.

The following statement, furnished to us by Josiah Snow, Esq., of Detroit, contains as fresh and interesting intelligence of the resources, exports, and imports of Michigan, as can be obtained. The facts were collected with apparent care, and originally appeared in the "Western Farmer" and "Detroit Advertiser."

PRODUCTS OF THE STATE.

In order to get a starting point, Mr. Snow examined the state census of 1837, in the secretary of states' office, and the census of the United States, of 1840, in the clerk's office of the district court of the United States.

It must be recollected that the last census was taken in June, and therefore gives the amount of agricultural products of 1839.

BREAD-STUFFS.

	<i>State census of 1837.</i> <i>Bushels.</i>	<i>U. S. census of 1839.</i> <i>Bushels.</i>	<i>Estimate of 1841.</i> <i>Bushels.</i>
Wheat,	1,014,896	2,345,283	3,100,000
Corn,	791,427	2,215,787	2,700,000
Rye,	21,944	31,080	36,000
Buckwheat,	64,022	89,184	100,000
Oats,	1,116,910	3,717,177	4,000,000
Barley,	—	101,045	120,000
Total of grain,	3,009,199	8,499,556	10,116,000

Here it will be observed that the increase of grain of all kinds, between 1837 and 1839, two years, is 5,490,357 bushels; and of wheat 1,331,387 bushels. Mr. Snow puts down the increase for the two past years (to 1841) of all kinds of grain, at 1,516,440 bushels, which is but about one third of the increase as exhibited the two years previous to 1839; of this amount 755,717 bushels is placed to the credit of wheat, it being only about one half of the amount of increase from 1837 to 1839.

VALUE OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS—1841.

The average price of wheat Mr. S. puts at 70 cents, as nearly the whole shipped before the close of navigation ranged from 75 cents to \$1.10.

The whole number engaged in agriculture in 1840 was 56,521.

Wheat,	3,000,000 bushels at 70 cents	\$2,100,000
Corn,	2,700,000 " 30 "	710,000
Rye,	36,000 " 40 "	14,400
Buckwheat,	100,000 " 50 "	50,000
Oats,	4,000,000 " 20 "	800,000
Barley,	120,000 " 35 "	42,000
Potatoes	2,051,339 " 15 "	307,700
Value of the products of the dairy,		300,000
Value of home-made goods,		100,000
Maple-sugar,	1,190,738 lbs. at 7 "	83,151
Pickled fish,	32,005 bbls. 6 "	192,000
Value of furs of this state and Lake Superior,		425,000
Potashes, 500 tons, at \$90		45,000
Whiskey, and high wines, 2,000,000 galls. at 20 cents,		400,000
Wool, 200,000 lbs. at 35 cents,		70,000
Hops, 16,000 " 30 "		4,800
Tons of hay, 150,000, at \$5,		750,000
Hogs, 600,000, average 75 lbs., at 2 cents per lb.,		900,000
		<hr/> \$7,894,051

FARM STOCK IN 1837 AND 1839.

	<i>Census—1837.</i>	1840.	<i>Increase in 2 years.</i>
Horses,	14,059	26,151	12,092
Cattle,	89,610	175,120	85,510
Sheep,	22,684	89,934	67,250
Swine,	109,096	342,920	233,824
	<hr/> 235,449	<hr/> 634,125	<hr/> 398,676

SHIPPING OWNED IN THE STATE.

In 1819, the shipping owned in the territory was about 600 tons.

From 1830 to the present time, we find the following aggregate tonnage registered, as belonging to the Detroit district :

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Year.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
1830	995	1836	5,066
1831	1,105	1837	6,994
1832	2,740	1838	
1833	2,575	1839	
1834	4,009	1840	11,942

In 1817, there was *imported* into Detroit—

3,501 bbls. flour,	2,843 bbls. salt,
1,948 " whiskey,	888 " pork,
295 " fish,	693 firkins butter,
5,062 bushels of corn,	1,042 head of beef cattle,
	1,435 fat hogs.

There was *exported* the same year, to military stations on lakes Huron and Michigan—

2,024 bbls. flour,	1,282 bbls. salt,
753 " cider,	105 " pork,
394 " beef,	453 " whiskey,
153 firkins butter,	1,280 bushels corn.

EXPORTS OF MICHIGAN FROM 1818 TO 1841.

In 1818, the value of exports of the state, exclusive of furs, was—		\$69,330
In 1829, furs exported,	\$325,000	
Other articles,	75,000	
	<hr/>	400,000
From 1830 to 1835, the furs aver. annually,	\$400,000	
Other articles,	100,000	
	<hr/>	500,000
1836 to 1837, including furs, each year,		550,000
1840, estimate from returns,		1,551,500
1841, see various ports below,		3,484,278 65

EXPORTS OF DETROIT—1841.

180,000 bbls. flour, averaging \$5	\$900,000
13,000 " pork " 9	117,000
200,000 lbs. bacon " 6	12,000
2,000 bbls. seed " 7	14,000
500 casks ashes " 20	10,000
50,000 bushels wheat " 1	50,000
475 packs furs and peltries,	125,000
2,000,000 staves, (pipes and hhds.)	60,000
Lard and butter,	30,000
Fish,	50,000
Hides, wool, &c.	50,000
500 casks high wines,	2,500
Shingles and lumber,	75,000
12,000 bbls. whiskey,	7,800
312 " cranberries,	938
500 boxes glass,	1,500
12,000 " pig lead,	600
28 bbls. beef,	896
200 bales paper rags,	2,000
300 bbls. white beans,	900
Wood to steamboats,	8,000
Articles not enumerated above,	100,000
	<hr/>
	\$1,618,184

IMPORTED BY THE MERCHANTS OF DETROIT—1841.

Dry goods,	\$644,000
Groceries,	345,000
Hardware,	170,000
Drugs, &c.,	120,000
Books and stationery, printing apparatus,	
paper, ink, &c.,	90,000
Ready-made clothing,	65,000
Shoes,	50,000
Jewelry,	15,000
Saddlery,	25,000
Fur stores,	30,000
	<hr/>

Amount carried forward, \$1,554,000

Amount brought forward,	\$1,554,000	
Leather,	35,000	
Crockery,	39,000	
Hatters,	24,000	
Cabinet ware,	20,000	
Marble,	2,000	
Mill stone bolting cloths,	2,000	
	<hr/>	1,676,000

EXPORTS FROM THE MOUTH ST. JOSEPH RIVER.

68,600 bbls. flour,	\$343,000	
90,612 bushels wheat,	90,612	
5,197 bbls. pork,	46,773	
312 " lard,	6,240	
190 packs furs,	25,000	
5,312 casks whiskey,	58,432	
2,100 casks high wines,	23,100	
812 tons pig iron,	60,000	
210 " castings,	16,800	
21,102 lbs. hides,	1,050	
Butter,	4,000	
Grass seed,	2,000	
Wool,	700	
Beans,	86	
Articles not enumerated above,	10,000	
	<hr/>	687,793

TOLEDO—PRODUCTS OF MICHIGAN.

127,888 bushels of wheat,	\$120,000	
45,784 bbls. flour,	228,920	
1,308 casks potashes,	26,060	
7,063 bbls. pork,	63,599	
440 firkins of butter and lard,	3,000	
520 bbls. grass seed,	3,640	
350 " beans and walnuts,	1,050	
2,180 dry hides,	15,460	
350 packs furs,	60,000	
Wool,	4,000	
Articles not enumerated above,	5,500	
	<hr/>	531,229

ST. CLAIR RIVER.

Wood, lumber, shingles, spars, fish, &c., from Port Huron, Palmer, Newport, Algonac, and Fort Gratiot,	100,000
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MONROE.

9,302 bbls. flour,	\$46,500
570 " pork,	5,500
285 casks ashes,	7,500
150 firkins butter,	900

Amount carried forward, \$60,400

	Amount brought forward, \$60,400	
23,015 bushels of wheat,	23,015	
140 " barley,	52 50	
134 " corn,	50 25	
3,000 " oats,	750	
56 " grass seed,	70	
47 " beans,	35 25	
75 doz. brooms,	112 50	
570 hides,	1,012	
84,923 staves,	4,216 15	
	<hr/>	89,713 65

MACKINAC.

60,000 lbs. maple sugar,	\$4,200	
650 furs and peltries,	150,000	
4,000 bbls. fish,	28,000	
	<hr/>	182,200

SAULT DE STE. MARIE.

12,000 bbls. fish,	\$72,000	
40 " oil,	800	
40,000 lbs. maple sugar,	2,800	
500 packs furs,	100,000	
	<hr/>	175,600

MT. CLEMENS.

1,000,000 staves,	25,000	
Agricultural products,	20,000	
	<hr/>	45,000

MOUTH OF KALAMAZOO RIVER.

10,000 bbls. flour,	\$50,000	
900 " pork,	8,000	
250 " whiskey,	2,500	
Grass seed, beans and lard, &c.,	2,000	
1,200,000 feet pine lumber, for Chicago,	12,000	
	<hr/>	74,500

TOTAL OF EXPORTS FOR 1841, AS ABOVE.

Port of Detroit,	\$1,608,134	
Mouth of St. Joseph River,	687,794	
Toledo, products of this state,	520,729	
On St. Clair River,	100,000	
Monroe,	90,321 65	
Mackinac,	182,280	
Sault Ste. Marie,	175,600	
Mt. Clemens,	45,000	
Mouth of Kalamazoo River,	74,500	
	<hr/>	\$3,484,358 65

AGGREGATES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.

Port.	Barrels of flour.	Value.
Detroit,	180,000	\$900,000
St. Joseph,	68,600	343,000
	<hr/>	<hr/>
Carried forward,	248,600	\$1,243,000

Brought forward,	248,600	\$1,243,000
Toledo,	45,784	228,920
Monroe,	9,302	46,500
Mt. Clemens,	1,000	5,000
Kalamazoo harbor,	10,000	50,000

Barrels,	314,686	\$1,573,420
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	<i>Bushels of wheat.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
Detroit,	50,000	\$50,000
St. Joseph,	90,612	90,612
Toledo,	127,888	120,000
Monroe,	23,015	23,015
Mt. Clemens,	3,000	3,000

	294,515	\$286,627
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	<i>Pork.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
Detroit,	13,000	\$117,000
St. Joseph,	5,197	46,773
Toledo,	6,063	63,599
Monroe,	570	5,500
Kalamazoo river,	900	8,000

	25,730	\$240,872
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	<i>Casks of Ashes.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
Detroit,	500	\$10,000
Toledo,	1,308	26,060
Monroe,	285	7,500

	2,093	\$43,560
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	<i>Bales Furs and Peltries.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
Detroit,	600	\$125,000
St. Joseph,	190	25,000
Toledo,	350	50,000
Mackinac,	650	150,000
Sault Ste. Marie,	500	100,000

	2,290	\$450,000
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	<i>Whiskey and High Wines.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
Detroit, (high wines)	500	\$2,500
“ whiskey,	1,200	7,800
St. Joseph, (high wines)	2,100	23,100
“ whiskey,	5,312	58,432
Kalamazoo river, do	250	2,500

	9,362	\$94,332
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	<i>Barrels and Firkins, Lard and Butter.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
Detroit,		\$30,000
St. Joseph,	490	10,240

Carried forward,	490	\$40,240
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Brought forward,	490	\$40,240
Toledo,	440	3,000
Monroe,	150	900
Kalamazoo river,	300	2,000

	1,380	\$46,140
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	<i>Lumber, feet.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
Kalamazoo river, for		
Chicago,	1,200,000	\$12,000
St. Clair river, for Ohio, shingles, lumber, spars, &c.,		80,000
		<hr/> \$92,000

	<i>Staves.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
Detroit,	2,000,000	\$60,000
Mt. Clemens,	1,000,000	25,000
Monroe,	84,928	4,216
	<hr/> 3,084,928	<hr/> \$89,216

RECAPITULATION OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES EXPORTED—1841.

314,686 barrels of flour,	\$1,573,420
294,515 bushels wheat,	286,627
26,730 barrels pork,	240,876
2,093 casks of ashes,	43,560
2,290 packs furs and peltries,	450,000
8,862 barrels of whiskey and high wines,	94,332
Butter and lard,	46,140
Lumber,	92,000
3,084,928 staves, (pipes and hhds.)	89,216
Grass seed,	19,810
Hides and wool,	61,512
Castings and pig iron from St. Joseph,	76,000
Fish from various ports,	140,000
Other articles not enumerated, such as beans, hams, cranberries, corn, oats, &c. &c.	270,784 65
	<hr/> \$3,484,277 65

EXPORTS OF FLOUR AND WHEAT DURING THE TWO PAST YEARS.

1841—314,686 barrels.	1840—196,896
“ 294,515 bushels wheat.	

ESTIMATED AMOUNT OF SURPLUS WHEAT NOW IN THE STATE.

	<i>Bushels.</i>
Raised in 1841, wheat,	3,100,000
Flour shipped 314,686 barrels, or in bushels,	1,257,764
Wheat do, bushels,	294,515
	<hr/> 1,552,279
Carried foward,	1,547,721

	Brought forward,	1,547,721
Consumption of the state, each inhabitant five bushels, say the population is 212,000,		1,060,000
		<hr/>
Surplus to go forward in the spring, say about 100,000 barrels, or		487,721

TOTAL SURPLUS OF WHEAT OF MICHIGAN, 1841.

314,686 barrels of flour already shipped,	\$1,573,420
294,555 bushels wheat do.,	286,627
100,000 barrels (estimated) to go forward,	425,000
	<hr/>
	\$2,285,047

AMOUNT OF SURPLUS PORK.

In 1836, Michigan imported immense quantities of pork from Ohio. In January, 1837, Mr. Snow called at the various storehouses of Detroit, to get the amount imported into the state the previous year, and found it to be 34,000 barrels, at an average price of \$20 per barrel. Total cost \$680,000.

In 1837, the state census was taken, and the number of hogs, then in the state, was 109,096. The census of 1840 gave 342,920, being an increase in two years of 232,534, or about 100,000 a year. It is a fair estimate, that at the commencement of slaughtering the past fall, there were 700,000 *gruntings* in the state.

	<i>Barrels Exported.</i>		<i>Value.</i>
	1840.	1841.	
Detroit,	251	13,000	
St. Joseph,	1,000	5,197	
Toledo,	1,675	7,063	
Monroe,		570	
Kalamazoo river,		900	
	<hr/>	<hr/>	
	2,926	26,730	\$240,876

The exports of 1840, was the pork put up in 1839, and that of 1841, the surplus of 1840. Within two years great attention has been given to this branch of agriculture, and every farmer has more than doubled his stock. Mr. Snow estimates the number of hogs at 700,000, or three and a quarter to each inhabitant of the state. Mr. S. thinks they can spare two of them; averaging their weight at only seventy-five pounds, and they have a surplus of 31,800,000 pounds, which, at two cents a pound, amounts to \$636,000. This to go forward in the spring; and the next year we shall find it the second article in amount of our exports. We may put down of agricultural products of 1841 to go in the spring, from the foregoing calculations,

100,000 barrels of flour at \$4 25,	\$425,000
31,800,000 pounds of pork at 2 cents,	636,000
Add the exports of 1841,	3,484,278 65
	<hr/>

Which gives a surplus for 1841 of . \$4,545,278 65

WOOL.

In addition to the articles heretofore exported from Michigan, that of wool will form a considerable item the coming season. In 1837 about 22,684 sheep were enumerated. In 1840, there were 89,934. It is estimated there were 75,000 sheep brought into the state the two past years, which, with the increase to be calculated in 1840, it is a fair estimate to put the present number down at near 300,000. The average wool may be put down at $2\frac{1}{2}$ pounds, which gives a total of 700,000 pounds, which at the lowest price, 30 cts., is \$210,000.

GYPSUM OR PLASTER OF PARIS.

Rising 1,000 tons of this article was imported into Detroit the past year. The recent discovery of several beds of the purest quality, and mills for grinding the same having been erected, hereafter Michigan will be able to supply itself and export large quantities to Illinois, Indiana, and Wisconsin.

SALT.

At least 100,000 barrels of salt are annually imported into the state, at a cost of \$160,000. Mr. Lyon at Grand Rapids has his arrangements completed so far as to commence its manufacture in the spring. He has erected a building 250 feet long, and the two arches that support the caldrons are 130 feet; exceeding in span any ever before constructed for this purpose in our country. One hundred and thirty gallons of salt water discharges a minute. He is also boring other wells; but from the one finished he will be able to manufacture, *daily*, 339 barrels, or upwards of 120,000 a year.

The number of gallons of water required to give a bushel of salt, at the various works in this country, is—

At the best salt wells in New York,	41 to 45
salt wells of Kennawha, Va., (average)	70
best salt wells on Muskingum river, O.,	50
springs on Grand river, Arkansas,	80
Lyon's salt well, Grand river, Michigan, at 661 feet, (fresh water not separated,)	82 $\frac{1}{2}$
State salt well, Grand river, Michigan, depth 239 feet, (fresh water not separated,)	110 $\frac{1}{2}$
State salt wells, Tittabawassa river, Michigan, earth boring, 139 feet,	221 $\frac{1}{2}$
Conemaugh, Penn.,	300
Nantucket, sea water,	350

The following calculations, founded on the recent census, were made by Bela Hubbard, Esq., editor of the Western Farmer:

Out of the whole population, those engaged in agriculture, in proportion to those engaged in all the other departments of industry, are in

New England, as	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1
New York,	2 to 1
Ohio,	3 to 1
Illinois,	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1
Indiana,	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1
Michigan,	6 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1

That we may see whether the soil of Michigan bears a favorable pro-

portion of the cereal grains (wheat, barley, oats, rye, buckwheat, and Indian corn) we give the following comparison of the number of bushels to each inhabitant, in this and other states :

Michigan produced, in 1840, 38½ bushels to each inhabitant.

New York, " 21½ " " "

Recent census of England
and Wales, 16½ " " "

Extending the result to other wheat-growing states, the number of bushels of *wheat* raised, is as follows :

New England raised 5½ bushels to each one engaged in agriculture,

New York, " 26 " " " "

Illinois, " 26 " " " "

Indiana, " 28 " " " "

Michigan, " 33½ " " " "

Ohio, " 29½ " " " "

We cannot more properly conclude this article than by adverting to the very extraordinary advantages that are held out by the soil and commercial facilities of this state for colonization. Spreading out ample tracts of fertile land, whose agricultural products find a ready market at the east, endowed with a picturesque scenery, and encircled by a chain of mediterranean seas that open a wide field to commerce, there is no part of the country that furnishes stronger inducements to settlement by agriculturists. The farmer can, without much labor, supply himself and his family with an independent freehold, yielding a comfortable subsistence, which is not liable to be subverted by the fluctuations of the currency and the uncertain mutations of trade ; and while reaping his harvests from his own fields, he cannot but feel proud in the conviction that he is engaged in an honorable pursuit, more adapted to the spirit of our government perhaps than any other, and that he is thus enabled to leave the same advantages to his children. Of its advance hitherto, we are enabled to judge by the fact, that in 1810 the entire population of the territory was but four thousand seven hundred and sixty-two, and that the last census of 1840, exhibits it to have increased to two hundred and twelve thousand two hundred and sixty-seven. From its present position and past progress, we doubt not that it is destined ultimately to take its place among the most opulent states of the Union.

FREE TRADE.

God's laws, creation's laws, proclaim and teach
Mutual advantage each should reap from each ;
That busy barks should glide from shore to shore
Their varied freights of interchange to pour,
The heralds of prosperity and peace,
To bid all hatred and contention cease.
No more should war's red banner be unfurled
To slay and devastate : but the wide world,
Bound in one chain of brotherhood, should be
The mighty bond of RECIPROCITY.

ART. VI.—WRECKS, WRECKING, WRECKERS, AND WRECKEES,
ON FLORIDA REEF.

— “There be land-rats and water-rats, land-thieves and water-thieves, * * * And then there is the peril of the waters, winds, and rocks.”—*Merchant of Venice*.

THERE is no portion of the American coast more dangerous to the mariner, or where more property is annually wrecked, than on the Florida Reef. Its contiguity to the gulf stream, and forming a sort of Scylla to that Charybdis, the Bahama Islands, are the main causes which make it so dangerous to, and so much dreaded by, seamen. Lying in the way, as it does, of much important commerce, many ships of the largest class are compelled to encounter its dangers, and run the risk of an inhospitable reception upon its rocky shores and sunken coral reefs.

There is, on an average, annually wrecked upon the Florida coast, about fifty vessels, a very great proportion of which are New Orleans, Mobile, or other packets. The great destruction of property consequent upon this state of things, and the hope of gain, have induced a settlement at Key West, where, to adjudicate upon the wrecked property, a court of admiralty has been established. A large number of vessels, from 20 to 30, are annually engaged as wreckers, lying about this coast to “help the unfortunate,” and to help themselves. These vessels are in many instances owned in whole or in part by the merchants of Key West; the same merchant frequently acts in the quadruple capacity of owner of the wrecker, agent for the wreckers, consignee of the captain, and *agent for the underwriters*. Whose business he transacts with most assiduity, his own, or that of others, may be readily inferred.

A residence of a few years on the Florida reef, enables me to speak with some knowledge of the manner in which business is usually conducted about those parts; and to a community suffering as much as this does, I think a statement of facts may prove useful. The commercial world need then no longer remain inactive in seeking a redress of grievances in consequence of an ignorance of their existence.

I am sure the manner in which wrecked property is saved and adjudicated upon in Key West, cannot be known to the underwriters, or they would take some measures to put an end to many of the evils they endure under the present state of things.

The whole coast, from near Cape Cerveral to the Tortuga, is strewed with small wrecking vessels, either sloops or schooners, that anchor inside of the reef, *out of sight* from vessels at sea, because if they were seen by the unfortunate vessel who is making unconsciously too near an approach to the shore, they would apprise her of her danger, so that she would stand off to sea, and thus the victim would not be sacrificed. That the wrecker hails with delight the wreck of a vessel, is not to be wondered at. His gains are enormous; it is his business, and his interests are so much at stake that all the softer feelings of humanity soon die away in his bosom, and he hails the stranding of the unfortunate vessel with delight. It is not to be supposed, then, that he will, seeing a vessel coming ashore, sail for her and make known to her the danger she is encountering, but rather that he will endeavor by every means in his power, if not to allure her, at least not to caution her. To the praise of the wreckers be it said, that

they never have refused to listen to the calls of humanity, even when doing so has often been to their loss. The cases are numerous where they have left their wrecking ground, and carried wrecked passengers upwards of a hundred miles, furnishing the passengers with food and passage free of charge. The wreckers have been accused of raising false lights to deceive vessels at sea. As a general rule I do not believe this charge is true, and the strongest reason I have for disbelieving it is, that it is not to their interest to do so. As soon as a vessel sees a light on Florida shore, she knows she is as near to land, if not nearer than she ought to be, and of course would immediately haul off from the danger. The practice of the wreckers is quite the reverse. No lights are allowed to be burning in their vessels except in the binnacle, and this light is most cautiously guarded, lest vessels at sea should descry it, and thereby discover their proximity to land. Every morning at break of day, the whole of the reef is scoured by some one or the other of the vessels, in search of "a prize," that may have come on the rocks at night. If a vessel is discovered on shore, and two wreckers descry her at the same time, every stitch of canvass is set, in order to be the first to board her and relieve her; if it is calm, the small-boats are manned, and they pull as if for life. This looks charitable, but the charity begins at home. The captain of the wrecker jumps on board the unfortunate vessel, and inquires for her captain; and now commences a series of impositions upon the underwriters. "Captain," says the wrecker, "are you insured?" "Yes; well—to the full amount." "I suppose you know," says the wrecker, "that if you go into Key West to get repaired, that the expenses are enormous, and your owners will be obliged, according to the rules of the underwriters, to pay *one third* of the repairs; *whereas, if the vessel should be so unfortunate as to be a total loss*, the insurers pay all, and that makes a clean and short business of it." "Certainly," says the wrecked captain, "that is very true, but I am bound to do the best I can." "All right, sir, but what can you do? you are hard and fast—the tide is at its height, (probably it is then dead low-water,) and you had better let me take full charge, for if not got off this tide, she'll bilge the next. I am a licensed wrecker." The license is produced, signed by the *judge of the admiralty court*, at Key West. Of course this is all right, at least so the wrecked captain thinks, or pretends to think. "But," continues the *unfortunate* captain, "if my vessel earns no freight, I earn no wages." "Very true," answers the complacent wrecker, "and I pity your unfortunate case; it is truly deplorable that such injustice is done to such a worthy class of men, and as I shall make something handsome by saving this property, if you give me and my consorts* the full business of wrecking the vessel, I could afford to pay you your wages, and make you a handsome present of three or four thousand dollars." "But will this all be right?" asks the wrecked captain. "Certainly; *you can if you please hand the three or four thousand dollars to the underwriters*—that is left to yourself; if you say nothing about it, of course I shan't—I dare not—I should lose my salvage if I did." Enough. The bargain is fixed, the captain has an order on the merchant for the cash, the stranded vessel is in the command of the wrecker, and there need not now be any fear that

* Consorting is for several vessels to go shares, and station themselves on different parts of the reef, and when one gets a wreck, he sends to the others to come and help.

the owners will have to pay *one third* for repairs—the vessel will soon be beyond repair. As to the underwriters, they have seen all they will of the bonus paid the captain. An appearance of an effort to get the vessel off, must be kept up among the passengers and the crew, who have heard none of the foregoing conversation, which generally takes place in the captain's private state-room. "Come, boys," cries the wrecker captain to his crew, "we must go to work as soon as the tide serves to get her off;" in the mean time, all hands turn to, to lighten her. By all hands is meant all the wrecker's crew. Some of them have already charitably informed the sailors that they have lost their wages by the loss of the vessel, and of course they work no more. The hatches are opened, and the articles taken out till she lightens. By this process she is driven still further on the reef; and when by lightening her she has got so far on that it is impossible to back her off, an attempt is made "*to pull her over.*" To this effect an anchor or two is carried off from her bows, and dropped on the reef; the windlass is then manned, and all hands put to work to drag her over, aided by her sails. It is soon found that is impossible, and she is now in the middle of the reef, beyond hope of getting forward or backward, and here she bilges.

In unloading, one would suppose it was to the interest of all parties to save the property in as good a condition as possible—but it is not; the wreckers' interest is to have it a little wetted, inasmuch as a very large per centage as salvage is given on property saved wet, compared to that on the dry—50 per cent, sometimes, on wet, and 7 to 10 on dry. And although the property is taken dry from the stranded vessel, some of it gets damaged on board the wrecker; a great quantity being put upon the decks of these small vessels, for each puts on board as much as he can, as they are paid by the quantity of goods saved and their value, and not by the number of loads. The passage from the wrecked vessel to Key West, is frequently boisterous, and always dangerous.

The goods when they are landed at Key West, are consigned to some merchant—probably, as before stated, the owner of the wrecker. The captains of the wrecked and the wrecker are now of course "hail fellows, well met." The latter recommends his own merchant to the former, as his consignee; the merchant invites the captain to his house, makes no charge for his stay, and the captain, in the next paper, publishes a card of thanks for the merchant's "*disinterested hospitality.*"

All now is going on swimmingly. The marshal advertises the goods, (and here let me say, that the *present* marshal discharges his duty like a man and a christian,) the auction sale comes on, and thirty to forty thousand dollars worth of goods are sold on an island containing about five or six merchants, nearly a hundred miles from any inhabited land. Who is to blame? Not the marshal—the law points out his duty, and he pursues it. The advertisement generally consists of publication in a paper, the subscribers of which number about three hundred, nearly all wreckers, owned and supported by the merchants of the Key; and a few written advertisements stuck up around *the island*, added to this, completes the publication. The marshal can do no better; it is not that it is an unfair sale that is to be complained of, but the whole system is to be reprobated.

The day of sale arrives. Who are the bidders? The aforesaid five merchants! How easily *might* these merchants agree not to run the

one the other on his bid, and thus a whole cargo, worth thirty thousand dollars, might be divided among them at the cost of about two thousand dollars each, or less. It is true, sometimes advertisements are sent to the Havana ; but sometimes also the sales take place before the merchants from there have a chance to get over to Key West, and *sometimes* this may be known when the advertisement is sent ; but then the sending to Havana will have a good appearance when represented to underwriters and absent owners.

Methinks I hear the reader asking, where, all this while, is the captain of the wrecked vessel, and what is he about during this interesting epoch ? I have often asked the same question, and found him sometimes in one of the grog-shops, or busily engaged in getting rid of his bonus by card-playing.

I have known purchases made of valuable goods at these auctions, where the top was a little wet, and all the rest perfectly dry ; they were bought by the wrecker, who knew how far the wet extended, because he brought them up on the deck of his vessel, and one end of the box lay by accident in the lea-scuppers. A package of beautiful ready-made clothing of this kind, I saw once sell for about \$150 or \$200, and before it was removed from the ground, one third was retailed out at \$250. The profits on the whole must have been enormous.

The captain of the wrecked vessel often employs a proctor in the court of admiralty to defend absent underwriters and owners, and so cripples the proctor by compelling him (by so instructing him) to admit the wreckers' libel, that no justice can be done those abroad, because they are trusting to a captain who is already bought up, and who is actually fighting against their interest, though seemingly for it.

The whole system from beginning to end is manifestly wrong, and ought to be changed. Underwriters are imposed upon by their own agents the captains, and then they blame the wreckers and people of Key West. The latter, living as they do upon wrecks, and every one on the island being dependent upon them more or less as a means of subsistence, naturally work for their own interests in preference to that of others. And for this the wreckers are blamed. It must be remembered they are men ; and tempted as they are, I often wonder they do not act worse than they do. They have very large sums invested generally, and are at a great expense ; is it natural then that they should frighten away the bird when she is about to light in their net ? As regards the merchants there, they live by buying cheap and selling dear, and they must make hay while the sun shines.

He who censures a law or practice ought to be prepared to point out some mode of redress. I will conclude this article by doing so.

In the first place, the underwriters should have a vessel or two on the reef, or a small steamboat would answer better. These crafts should be constantly going from one end of the reef to the other, and while one was scouring the lower portion, the other should be on the upper. They should all have lights at night at their mast-heads, which could be distinguished from the light-houses, when not under way ; their moving when sailing would be a sufficient notice that they were other lights than that of the beacon ; in cases of fog, let them toll a bell or fire guns occasionally. The expense of a steamboat is raised as an objection to its employment. This is indeed penny wise and pound foolish. The ribs of many a noble ship would not now be lying in " Rotten Row," at Key West, could a steam-

boat have been procured to haul her off when she was but slightly on the rocks. *Nine times out of ten* ships and cargoes that are made total losses, might be saved by a steamboat taking off her deck load, and hauling her off by her steam-power. Again; in cases of wrecks, the steamboat, if strongly constructed, could lay alongside as well as a sloop or schooner, if not better, and she might take off her cargo and carry it on shore six times where a wrecker could once; and in case a vessel was ashore in a calm, then the steamboat could go when no sail vessel could. A wrecker when he gets a load starts with it for *Key West*, a distance often of upwards of a hundred miles, and it is a week ere he returns. Small warehouses might be built on the islands, about five miles apart, where the goods could be safely stowed till all were out of the vessel, and then it need not be carried to *Key West*, as there is no necessity of adjudicating upon it; thus all this expense and sacrifice of property, which is very great, might be saved. A steamboat, or two, would save in this way to the underwriters annually from two to three or four hundred thousand dollars, and the cost would be a mere trifle compared with the expense of others, as the best of wood all along the coast is to be had for the cutting. Captain Housman, who resided on, and owned most of Indian Key, intended to have a steamboat as a wrecker, and had engaged with a builder to contract for one for him, but heavy losses deterred him at that time from pursuing what to him was a favorite plan, and his death subsequently put an end to the scheme.

The captains of the steamers, when they missed a wreck, (which would seldom happen,) could see after the goods and act as agent for the underwriters, or get some one who could and would attend to it for them faithfully, and not leave it to a bought-up captain. No doubt the underwriters who read this will say they have tried this plan to a certain extent. It is true they appointed *the owner of wreckers*, a merchant in *Key West*, their agent, *without pay*, and bought a wrecker to be put under his charge. The result was, he converted her into a wrecker, and claimed salvage for all she saved. Cheap work is generally badly done—so this turned out. If underwriters want an agent in *Key West*, they must pay him well, and then their business will be well attended to.

Another remedy I would point out for the existing evils, is to make more ports of entry along the reef, and thus break up the *Key West* monopoly. One port might be made at Cayo Biscayno, and another at Indian Key. This would create competition, and one would watch the other with a jealous eye, and expose any improper conduct.

Again, the judge of the court of admiralty should not be selected from among the lawyers of *Key West*, who have been for years acting for the wreckers, and received large fees from them. The connection is too close between them, and the underwriters do not stand quite so good a chance.

Never let your captains leave cases to arbitration on Key West; for ten to one the persons selected will be part secret owners of the wrecking vessels to whom they are going to award salvage; if not, then probably they have the supply of them, or they are otherwise too much interested to decide impartially.

Establish an honest agent at *Key West*—send him there with a good salary, or else allow him a good per centage on the amount of all goods saved, after expenses are deducted; this will make it to his interest as

well as his duty to oppose unnecessary expenses. Let there be established a board of underwriters, in case he has a salary to pay him, and let each insurance office pay the board in proportion to the losses they suffer.

There is annually paid by the insurance offices about \$6000 for proctors' fees among the *several* lawyers. Concentrate this in *one*, and make him act as agent, then you will have an agent and no additional expense. I proposed this plan years ago to the underwriters, but they did not seem to regard it.

Have no property sold in Key West except perishable. Have it shipped to Havana, Mobile, New Orleans, Texas, Charleston, Savannah, or wherever it may bring the most by a fair competition.

Let the judge of the admiralty court reverse his practice, and give high salvage where a vessel is got off without damage to her and her goods, and low in proportion to the bad state they are saved in. This will make it to the interest of the wreckers to save vessel and cargo in as sound a condition as possible.

Let the underwriters abolish the system of making owners pay for one third repairs—this loses many a noble vessel that would otherwise be saved. Pay captains their wages, wreck or no wreck, where they have done their duty. Don't leave them to choose between starvation of their family and the wrecker's "bonus." So also with the sailors, don't cut off their wages, and so lose their services when most wanted. This is most miserable policy.

An immense deal of merchandise which is saved wet, if it could be immediately washed and dried, would be comparatively but little injured. Whereas by the present mode it is stowed away, much of it in the hold of the vessel, in a hot tropical clime, there to sweat on a voyage of one hundred miles, where it is not uncommon for calms to make it several days. To thus wash and dry the goods, these houses on the shores I have recommended would be very useful. The sweating of the goods entirely rots them, so as to make them almost valueless.

The present system of paying salvage according to the value of the goods saved works unjustly, because all are entitled to the same protection of their property under these circumstances. But whether to remedy this evil would not work a greater, I will not pretend to say.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

RECENT DECISIONS IN THE UNITED STATES COURTS.

PROCEEDINGS IN BANKRUPTCY.

Judge Sprague, of the United States District Court for the District of Massachusetts, had a hearing of the first *batch* of those who had petitioned to be declared bankrupts, on Tuesday, the 1st of March, 1842. At the opening of the court, Judge Sprague laid down certain rules which were to be observed in these proceedings, of which the following report is given in the Daily Advertiser:—

1. Proof was to be taken in each case, that the proper public notice of the petition had been made. In the course of the proceedings, the Judge decided that the proper evidence of notice was the newspapers in which notice had been published. In case of

two instances a certificate of the publishers (out of the city) was offered, but it was held to be insufficient.

2. Whenever a petition is answered to, or opposed, the appearance of the respondent must be entered on the docket; and an answer must be filed within four days, unless, for cause shown, the time be extended by the court. For the sake of uniformity, a form for the commencement of the answer is prescribed by the court.

3. When there is no appearance, the case will be called by the crier, and an entry thereof made, in the nature of a default.

Each petition and schedule will then be submitted to a commissioner residing in Boston for examination, who is to certify whether the same is correct in point of form or not. If certified to be correct and no person appears to object, the petitioner will be deemed to be a bankrupt. If certified to be incorrect, the errors will be pointed out and must be corrected by a supplemental statement, sworn to before a commissioner, but the original petition and schedule must not be altered by erasures or interlineations. After being corrected, they will be again referred to the commissioner who made the first examination, who will re-examine and return them, and, if certified to be correct in form, and no person appear to object, the petitioner will be deemed to be a bankrupt.

A question being put to the Judge in respect to the appointment of assignees of bankrupts, he said he should not adopt the practice which obtained in some states of appointing general assignees, although this course would doubtless save him much trouble. But he thought it better to appoint an assignee in each case, although he should undoubtedly appoint the same persons in many different cases.

BANKRUPTS PRIVILEGED FROM ARREST ON EXECUTION FOR DEBT.

Judge Irwin, of the United States District Court, for the Western District of Pennsylvania, has decided that an applicant for the benefits of the bankrupt law cannot be arrested on an execution for debt. He says:

"By the English statutes of bankruptcy, the bankrupt is free from arrest or imprisonment by any creditor during the time allowed for examination, provided he was not in custody at the time of the surrender, and, if arrested, is entitled to be discharged; and the surrender, if voluntary, protects him from all arrests till his final examination is passed. Our statute of bankruptcy does not expressly confer this privilege on the bankrupt, but it was not necessary to be so conferred. The person and property of the bankrupt are, by the law, brought within the jurisdiction of the district court, and the court possesses an inherent power in all cases of which it has jurisdiction, to cause its orders and decrees to be respected and obeyed, and to protect its suitors from arrest."

UNITED STATES BANKRUPT LAWS AND STATE INSOLVENCY LAWS.

A decision was recently made by the court of common pleas, (Philadelphia,) in reference to the operation of the general bankrupt law, which seems to settle an important principle. A citizen was arrested for debt and filed a bond to take the benefit of the insolvent laws of the state. He gave unexceptionable security to the prothonotary of the court, and received the usual certificate of discharge. This was presented to the sheriff, but he refused to release the defendant under it, alleging that the bankrupt law had superseded the insolvent laws of the Commonwealth, and that the only way in which the defendant could be released was to apply for the benefit of the former. In order to test this point, and to try the question whether a man could be thus compelled to become a voluntary bankrupt, when his debts do not amount to \$2,000, a habeas corpus was immediately sued out, and returned before the judges of the court of common pleas. The questions were fully and ably discussed by C. Fallon, for the Sheriff, and B. H. Brewster, for the defendant—when the court decided that the bankrupt law

of the United States does not supersede the state laws on insolvency, but that both may exist together, and applications be made for the benefit of either voluntarily, at the choice of the debtor.

DIGEST OF RECENT ENGLISH CASES.

BILLS AND NOTES.

1. An instrument was in the following terms: "I undertake to pay to R. I. the sum of 6l. 4s. for a suit of, ordered by D. P." *Held*, that it was not a promissory note, but good as a guarantee, as the consideration could be collected by necessary inference from the instrument itself. *Jarvis v. Wilkins*.

2. A bill of exchange having been drawn upon A. B., was accepted by him, and was afterwards indorsed by the drawer to the plaintiff, who indorsed it to the Birmingham and Midland Counties' Bank, who indorsed it to one W. The bill having been dishonored when due, W. gave notice of it to the bank, who gave notice to the plaintiff, one of whom wrote the following letter to the drawer: "Dear Sir.—To my surprise I have received an intimation from the Birmingham and Midland Counties' Bank, that your draft on A. B. is dishonored, and I have requested them to proceed on the same." *Held*, that if there was more than one bill to which the letter could apply, it lay upon the defendant to prove that fact, in order to show its uncertainty. *Held*, also, that the letter was a good notice of dishonor. *Shelton v. Braithwaite*.

3. In an action by the indorsee against the drawer of a bill of exchange, it is enough for the plaintiff to show, to the satisfaction of the jury, that the letter containing the notice of dishonor was posted in such time as that, by the due and usual course of the post, it would be delivered on the proper day. The post-office mark is not conclusive of the time when the letter is posted. *Stocken v. Collin*.

4. In an action on a bill of exchange, alleged in the declaration to have been indorsed by M. to the plaintiff; the defendant pleaded, that the bill was drawn and accepted without value, and that there never was any consideration for indorsing the bill by any of the parties, nor for the indorsement by M., nor for M. paying the amount. Replication, that the indorsement by M. was in blank, and that R., who appeared to be, and whom the plaintiff believed to be, the lawful holder, of the bill, indorsed it to the plaintiff for value, to wit, &c. Special demurrer, for want of a statement of consideration for the drawing and accepting of the bill, and for departure, as to the allegation of the indorsement to the plaintiff. *Held*, that the replication was good, as the plaintiff, against whom there was no allegation of fraud, sufficiently established his own title by alleging an indorsement to him for value by a person whom he believed to be the lawful holder of the bill. *Ashbourn v. Anderson*.

PRINCIPAL AND AGENT.

A club was formed, by the regulations of which the members paid entrance-money and an annual subscription, and cash was paid for provisions supplied to the house. The funds of the club were deposited at a banker's, and a committee was appointed to manage the affairs of the club, and to administer the funds, but no member of the committee had authority to draw cheques, except three who were chosen for that purpose, and whose signatures were countersigned by the secretary. *Held*, in an action brought against two of the committee by a tradesman who had supplied wine on credit, ordered by a member of the committee for the use of the club, that the tradesman was not entitled to recover without proving either that the defendants were privy to the contract, or that the dealing on credit was in furtherance of the common object and purpose of the club. *Todd v. Emly*.

STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES.

We have received from William A. Weaver, Esq., the superintending clerk of the sixth census at the department of state, an official copy of the "Aggregate of the Statistics of the United States on the 1st of June, 1840, taken by the marshals, in pursuance of an Act of Congress passed the 3d of March, 1839." In the February number we gave a summary view of the total results of that statement, and now proceed to lay before our readers the entire document, embracing a complete tabular recapitulation of the aggregate value and produce, (and the number of persons employed,) in mines, agriculture, commerce, manufactures, &c., exhibiting a full view of the pursuits, industry, and resources of the several states and territories of the United States. Its great length necessarily excludes from our pages the usual variety of mercantile miscellanies and statistics; but we preferred, for the convenience of future reference, to present it in a connected form rather than continuing it from one number to another until the whole had been completed. The tables exhibit in bold relief the immense wealth and vast resources of our great national domain; and yet it is more than probable that the actual industrial and productive riches of the nation exceed the statements here given by at least 20 per cent.

MINES.—IRON.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	CAST IRON.		BAR IRON.		Tons of Fuel Consumed.	Men Empl'd, including mining operations.	Capital Invested.
	Number of Furnaces.	Tons Produced.	Bloom'ies, Forges, & Roll. Mills.	Tons Produced.			
Maine,.....	16	6,122	1	285	48	\$185,950
New Hampshire,.....	15	1,320	2	125	2,104	121	98,200
Massachusetts,.....	48	9,332	67	6,004	199,252	1,097	1,232,875
Rhode Island,.....	5	4,126	227	29	22,250
Connecticut,.....	28	6,495	44	3,623	16,933	895	577,300
Vermont,.....	26	6,743	14	655	388,407	788	664,150
New York,.....	186	29,088	120	53,693	123,677	3,456	2,103,418
New Jersey,.....	26	11,114	80	7,171	27,425	2,056	1,721,820
Pennsylvania,.....	213	98,395	169	87,244	355,903	11,522	7,781,471
Delaware,.....	2	17	5	449	971	28	36,200
Maryland,.....	12	8,876	17	7,900	24,422	1,782	795,650
Virginia,.....	42	18,810½	52	5,886	36,588	1,742	1,246,650
North Carolina,.....	8	968	43	963	11,598	468	94,961
South Carolina,.....	4	1,250	9	1,165	6,334	248	113,300
Georgia,.....	14	494	29	630	41	24,000
Alabama,.....	1	30	5	75	157	30	9,500
Mississippi,.....
Louisiana,.....	6	1,400	2	1,366	4,152	145	357,000
Tennessee,.....	34	16,128½	99	9,673	187,453	2,266	1,514,736
Kentucky,.....	17	29,206	13	3,637	35,501	1,108	449,000
Ohio,.....	72	35,236	19	7,466	104,312	2,268	1,161,900
Indiana,.....	7	810	1	20	787	103	57,700
Illinois,.....	4	158	240	74	40,300
Missouri,.....	2	180	4	118	300	80	79,000
Arkansas,.....
Michigan,.....	15	601	451	99	60,800
Florida,.....
Wisconsin,.....	1	3	1	3	4,000
Iowa,.....
District of Columbia,.....
TOTAL,.....	804	286,903	795	197,233	1,528,110	30,497	20,432,131

MINES.—LEAD—GOLD—OTHER METALS.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	LEAD.				GOLD.			
	Smelting Houses, or Fires.	Pounds Produced.	Men Employed.	Capital Invested.	Smelting Houses.	Value Produced.	Men Employed.	Capital Invested.
Maine,.....								
New Hampshire,.....	1	1,000	2	\$500				
Massachusetts,.....								
Rhode Island,.....								
Connecticut,.....								
Vermont,.....								
New York,.....	9	670,000	333	221,000				
New Jersey,.....								
Pennsylvania,.....								
Delaware,.....								
Maryland,.....								
Virginia,.....	5	878,648	73	21,500	11	\$51,758	131	\$103,650
North Carolina,...	2	10,000	30	50,000	10	255,618	389	9,832
South Carolina,...					5	37,418	69	40,000
Georgia,.....					130	121,881	405	79,343
Alabama,.....						61,230	47	1,000
Mississippi,.....								
Louisiana,.....								
Tennessee,.....	2		4	350		1,500	4	400
Kentucky,.....								
Ohio,.....								
Indiana,.....								
Illinois,.....	20	8,755,000	73	114,500	1	200	1	100
Missouri,.....	21	5,295,455	252	235,806				
Arkansas,.....								
Michigan,.....								
Florida,.....								
Wisconsin,.....	49	15,129,350	220	664,600				
Iowa,.....	11	500,000	30	38,500				
Dist. of Columbia,.....								
TOTAL,.....	120	31,239,453	1,017	1,346,756	157	\$529,605	1,046	\$234,325

MINES, Etc.—Continued.

OTHER METALS.				OTHER METALS.			
STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Val. Produced.	Men Employed.	Capital Invested.	STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Val. Produced.	Men Employed.	Capital Invested.
Maine,.....	\$1,600	4	\$1,000	Mississippi,.....			
N. Hampsh.	10,300	11	9,500	Louisiana,.....			
Massachu's,.....	2,500	14	1,200	Tennessee,.....			
Rhode Isl'd,.....				Kentucky,.....			
Connectic't,.....				Ohio,.....	16,000	1	\$500
Vermont,.....	70,500	156	92,500	Indiana,.....			
New York,.....	84,564	119	42,930	Illinois,.....		2	
New Jers'y,.....	39,550	33	15,000	Missouri,.....	15,600	25	9,150
Pennsylv'a,.....	100,200	285	62,200	Arkansas,.....			
Delaware,.....				Michigan,.....			
Maryland,.....	28,800	73	5,000	Florida,.....			
Virginia,.....				Wisconsin,.....			
N. Carolina,.....	1,000	5		Iowa,.....			
S. Carolina,.....				Dist. of Col.			
Georgia,.....							
Alabama,.....				TOTAL,...	\$370,614	728	\$238,980

MINES.—COAL—SALT—GRANITE, MARBLE, AND OTHER STONE.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	ANTHRACITE COAL.			BITUMINOUS COAL.			DOMESTIC SALT.			GRANITE, MARBLE, ETC.		
	Tons (28 bush. each) Raised.	Men Em- ployed.	Capital Invested.	Bushels Raised.	Men Em- ployed.	Capital Invested.	Bushels Produced.	Men Em- ployed.	Capital Invested.	Value Produced.	Men Em- ployed.	Capital Invested.
Maine,.....	50,000	15	\$25,000	\$107,506	305	\$160,360
New Hampshire,.....	29,920	1,200	1	2,500	16,038	43	5,714
Massachusetts,.....	376,596	463	502,980	790,855	970	608,130
Rhode Island,.....	1,000	27	\$6,000	17,800	29	7,500
Connecticut,.....	38,000	6	1,500	2	3,000	313,469	692	332,275
Vermont,.....	33,855	104	18,270
New York,.....	2,867,884	332	5,601,000	1,541,480	3,649	1,002,555
New Jersey,.....	500	1	1,500	35,721	118	10,600
Pennsylvania,.....	859,686	2,977	4,334,102	11,620,654	1,798	\$300,416	549,478	255	191,435	238,831	540	172,272
Delaware,.....	1,160	17	200	16,000	46	5,000
Maryland,.....	222,000	23	4,470	1,200	3	100	22,750	61	17,200
Virginia,.....	200	2	100	10,622,345	995	1,301,855	1,745,618	624	300,560	84,489	233	49,290
North Carolina,...	50	4	75	1	4,493	8	7,090	3,350	14	930
South Carolina,...	2,250	7	1,500	3,000	4	500
Georgia,.....	51,990	199	36,300
Alabama,.....	23,650	13,700	22	10,000
Mississippi,.....
Louisiana,.....
Tennessee,.....	13,942	21	30,100	73	15,860
Kentucky,.....	2,125	27	14,150	588,167	213	76,627	219,695	291	163,585	19,592	100	6,212
Ohio,.....	296	4	1,250	3,513,409	434	45,525	297,350	240	113,195	195,831	296	27,496
Indiana,.....	242,040	47	9,300	6,400	19	20,050	35,021	105	6,750
Illinois,.....	132	2	424,187	152	120,076	20,000	22	10,000	74,228	142	14,020
Missouri,.....	249,302	69	9,488	13,150	36	3,550	28,110	33	15,025
Arkansas,.....	5,500	7	605	8,700	25	20,800	15,500	30
Michigan,.....	2,700	4	3,000
Florida,.....	12,000	4	30,000	2,650	30	14,500
Wisconsin,.....	968	17	400
Iowa,.....	10,000	2	500	350
Dist. of Columbia,
TOTAL,.....	863,489	3,043	4,355,602	27,603,191	3,768	1,868,862	6,179,174	2,365	6,998,045	3,695,884	7,859	2,540,159

AGRICULTURE.—LIVE STOCK—CEREAL GRAINS.

AGRICULTURE.—VARIOUS CROPS.

WOOL—HOPS—WAX—POTATOES—HAY—HEMP AND FLAX.

AGRICULTURE.—VARIOUS CROPS, ETC.—Continued.

TOBACCO—RICE—COTTON.

STATE ETC.	Tobacco Gathered. Pounds.	Rice. Pounds.	Cotton Gathered. Pounds.	STATE ETC.	Tobacco Gathered. Pounds.	Rice. Pounds.	Cotton Gathered. Pounds.
Mo...	30			Miss...	83,471	777,195	193,401,577
N. H.	115			La...	119,824	3,604,534	152,555,368
Mass.	64,955			Tenn...	29,550,432	7,977	27,701,277
R. I...	317			Ky...	53,436,909	16,376	691,456
Conn.	471,657			Ohio...	5,942,275		
Verm.	585			Ind...	1,820,306		190
N. Y.	744			Illin...	564,326	460	200,947
N. J...	1,922			Mo...	9,067,913	50	121,122
Penn.	325,018			Ark...	148,439	5,454	6,028,642
Del...	272		334	Mich...	1,602		
Md...	24,816,012		5,673	Fa...	75,274	481,420	12,110,533
Va...	75,347,106	2,956	3,494,483	Wisk...	115		
N. C.	16,772,359	2,820,388	51,926,190	Iowa...	8,076		
S. C.	51,519	60,590,861	61,710,274	D. of C.	55,550		
Geo...	162,894	12,384,732	162,392,396				
Ala...	273,302	149,019	117,138,823	TOTAL	219,163,319	80,841,422	790,479,275

**AGRICULTURE.—SILK—SUGAR—WOOD—DAIRIES—ORCHARDS—WINE—
FAMILY GOODS, ETC.**

HORTICULTURE.—GARDENS—NURSERIES.

STATES AND TERRI- TORIES.	GARDENS.		NURSERIES.		STATES AND TERRI- TORIES.	GARDENS.		NURSERIES.	
	Market Produce. Value.	Nursery Produce. Value.	Men Eng'd in	Capital Invested.		Market Produce. Value.	Nursery Produce. Value.	Men Eng'd in	Capital Invested.
Me.....	\$51,579	\$460	689	\$84,774	Miss...	\$10,000	\$499	66	\$43,060
N. H....	18,085	35	21	1,460	La.....	240,042	32,415	349	359,711
Mass...	283,904	111,814	292	43,170	Tenn..	19,812	71,100	34	10,760
R. I....	67,741	12,604	207	240,274	Ky....	125,071	6,226	350	100,597
Conn...	61,936	18,114	202	126,346	Ohio...	97,606	19,707	149	31,400
Ver....	16,276	5,600	49	6,677	Ind....	61,212	17,231	309	73,698
N. Y....	499,126	75,980	525	258,558	Illin....	71,911	22,990	77	17,515
N. J....	249,613	26,167	1,233	125,116	Mo.....	37,181	6,205	97	37,075
Penn...	232,912	50,127	1,156	857,475	Ark....	2,736	415	9	6,036
Del....	4,035	1,190	9	1,100	Mich...	4,051	6,307	37	24,273
Md.....	133,197	10,591	619	48,841	Fa.....	11,758	10	60	6,500
Va.....	92,359	38,799	173	19,900	Wisk..	3,106	1,025	89	85,616
N. C....	28,475	48,581	20	4,663	Iowa...	2,170	4,200	10	1,698
S. C....	38,187	2,133	1,058	210,980	D. of C.	52,895	850	163	42,333
Geo....	19,346	1,853	418	9,213					
Ala....	31,978	370	85	58,425	TOTAL	2,601,196	593,534	8,553	2,945,774

**COMMERCE.—WHOLESALE AND RETAIL HOUSES—LUMBER TRADE—
INTERNAL TRANSPORTATION—BUTCHERS AND PACKERS, ETC.**

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Commer'l Houses in Fo. Tr'de.	Commission Houses.	Capital Invested.	Ret'l Dryg'ds, Grocery, and other stores.	Capital Invested.	Lumber Trade Yards.	Capital Invested.	Men Em- ployed.	Internal Transp'n- Men Em.	Butchers, Pack'rs, &c. Employed.	Capital Invested.
Maine,.....	70	14	\$1,646,926	2,220	\$3,973,593	68	\$305,850	2,068	123	56	\$95,150
New Hampshire,.....	18	6	1,330,600	1,075	2,602,422	9	29,000	626	117	38	54,120
Massachusetts,....	241	123	13,881,517	3,625	12,705,038	137	1,022,360	3,432	799	480	407,830
Rhode Island,.....	44	57	2,043,750	990	2,810,125	41	254,900	262	58	83	71,050
Connecticut,.....	10	13	565,000	1,630	6,687,636	57	438,425	582	293	76	162,065
Vermont,.....	747	2,964,060	14	45,506	321	183	11	26,090
New York,.....	469	1,044	49,583,001	12,207	42,135,795	414	2,694,170	9,592	7,593	804	2,833,916
New Jersey,.....	2	8	99,000	1,504	4,113,247	86	410,570	1,280	423	30	204,900
Pennsylvania,.....	194	178	3,662,811	6,534	35,741,770	294	2,241,040	5,064	2,146	466	727,850
Delaware,.....	327	967,750	22	83,280	140	23	6	13,800
Maryland,.....	70	117	4,414,000	2,562	9,246,170	48	307,300	1,330	103	211	28,880
Virginia,.....	31	64	4,299,500	2,736	16,684,413	41	113,210	1,454	931	103	100,680
North Carolina,....	4	46	151,300	1,068	5,082,835	20	46,000	432	213	24	9,000
South Carolina,....	41	41	3,668,050	1,253	6,648,736	14	100,000	1,057	125	46	112,900
Georgia,.....	4	82	1,543,500	1,716	7,961,898	26	75,730	442	194	17	12,885
Alabama,.....	51	101	3,355,012	899	5,642,885	9	1,800	73	49	57	93,370
Mississippi,.....	7	67	673,900	755	5,004,420	11	132,175	228	40	15	4,250
Louisiana,.....	24	381	16,770,000	2,465	14,301,024	121	260,045	597	3	291	144,523
Tennessee,.....	13	52	1,495,100	1,032	7,357,300	9	6,700	1,126	31	5	98,811
Kentucky,.....	5	50	620,700	1,685	9,411,826	95	105,925	571	101	183	183,850
Ohio,.....	53	241	5,928,200	4,605	21,982,225	78	373,268	2,891	854	1,061	4,617,570
Indiana,.....	11	26	1,207,400	1,801	5,664,687	37	90,374	767	2,705	237	582,165
Illinois,.....	2	51	333,800	1,348	4,904,125	39	93,350	405	117	268	642,425
Missouri,.....	3	39	746,500	1,107	8,158,802	45	318,029	345	79	128	173,650
Arkansas,.....	10	10	91,000	263	1,578,719	9	12,220	263	3	600
Michigan,.....	26	177,500	612	2,228,988	15	45,600	312	142	4	39,200
Florida,.....	23	21	542,000	239	1,240,380	16	64,050	92	87	32	12,200
Wisconsin,.....	1	7	63,000	178	661,550	14	21,180	133	62	3	14,100
Iowa,.....	14	92,900	157	437,550	3	16,250	29
Dist. of Columbia,	7	2	310,000	285	2,701,890	11	140,000	49	70	59,100
TOTAL,.....	1,408	2,881	119,295,367	57,565	250,301,799	1,793	9,848,307	35,963	17,594	4,308	11,526,950

FISHERIES, AND PRODUCTS OF THE FOREST.
SMOKED AND PICKLED FISH—SPERM AND WHALE OIL—WHALEBONE, ETC.
LUMBER—NAVAL STORES—POT ASHES—FURS—GINSENG, ETC.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	FISHERIES.						PRODUCTS OF THE FOREST.						
	Smoked or Dried Fish. Quintals.	Pickled Fish. Barrels.	Spermaceti Oil. Gallons.	Whale, and oth. F. Oil. Gallons.	Whalebone, & oth. Prod. Value.	Men Empl'd.	Capital Invested.	Lumber Produced. Value.	Tar, Pitch, Turp., &c. Barrels.	Pot & Pearl Ashes. Tons.	Skins and Furs. Value.	Ginseng, & all oth. Products—Val.	Men Empl'd.
Maine,.....	279,156	54,071	1,044	117,807	\$2,351	3,610	\$526,967	\$1,808,683	260½	\$8,027	\$32,271	2,892
N. Hampsh.	28,257	1,714½	15,234	399	59,680	433,217	113½	2,230	1,929	553
Massachu's,	389,715	124,755	3,630,972	3,364,725	442,974	16,000	11,725,850	344,845	6	60	31,669	174
Rhode Isl'd,	4,034	2,908	487,268	633,860	45,523	1,160	1,077,157	44,455	155	50
Connectic't,	1,384	6,598	183,207	1,909,047	157,572	2,215	1,301,640	147,841	19,760	13,974	120
Vermont,...	346,939	1,750	2,500	392
New York,...	5	22,224	400,251	1,269,541	344,665	1,228	949,250	3,891,302	402	7,613½	15,556	143,332	4,664
New Jers'y,	1,134	12,000	80,000	74,000	179	93,275	271,591	2,200	2	20,000	65,075	446
Pennsylv'a.,	2,012	15,240	58	16,460	1,150,220	1,595	263	9,571	14,297	1,988
Delaware,...	28,000	49,704	142,575	7,987	165	170,000	5,562	7,557
Maryland,...	71,292	12,167	7,814	88,947	226,977	2,527	11,690	115
Virginia,...	30,315	262	4,150	556	28,383	538,092	5,809	23,214	49,654	2,218
N. Carolina,	2,385	73,350	2,387	23,800	1,784	213,502	506,766	593,451	3,126	46,040	2,694
S. Carolina,	425	53	1,617	537,684	735	1,225	9,247	508
Georgia,...	14	6	114,050	153	2,928	155	221
Alabama,...	2	169,008	197	3,585	4,281	84
Mississippi,	9	192,794	2,248	3,382	6,873	123
Louisiana,...	66,106	2,233	1,179	54
Tennessee,	97	7	242	217,606	3,336	1	2,602	1,635	282
Kentucky,...	130,329	700	17,860	34,510	508
Ohio,.....	3,506	14	165	12,210	262,821	5,631	6,809½	37,218	15,206	326
Indiana,...	14	1,150	420,791	2	220,883	9,902	799
Illinois,...	1	28	203,666	½	39,412	6,763	368
Missouri,...	70,355	356	373,121	4,015	1,134
Arkansas,...	176,617	34	37,047	3,805	343
Michigan,...	16,535	60	453	28,640	392,325	145	54,232	6,483	320
Florida,....	69,000	73	6,000	67	10,000	20,346	7,004	6
Wisconsin,...	9,021	1,500	155	138	61,300	202,239	1	124,776	3,562	593
Iowa,.....	50,280	25	33,594	67
Dist. of Col.	24,300	15,500	597	64,500
TOTAL,....	773,947	472,359½	14,764,708	7,536,776	1,153,934	36,584	16,499,620	12,943,507	619,106	15,935½	1,065,869	526,580	22,042

MANUFACTURES.—MACHINERY—HARDWARE—FIRE ARMS—METALS—

GRANITE, MARBLE, Etc.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	MACHINERY.		HARDWARE, ETC.		FIRE ARMS, ETC.			PREC'S METALS.		VARI'S METALS.		GRANITE, ETC.	
	Value.	Men Em- ployed.	Cutlery, &c. Value.	Men Em- ployed.	Can- non.	Small Arms.	Men Emp'd.	Value.	Men Emp'd.	Value.	Men Emp'd.	Value.	Men Emp'd.
Maine,.....	\$69,752	339	\$65,555	119	152	4	\$56,512	51	\$98,720	280
New Hampshire,.....	106,814	191	124,460	197	425	7	\$8,040	11	136,334	224	21,918	55
Massachusetts,.....	926,975	913	1,881,163	1,109	50	22,652	397	92,045	61	1,773,758	1,042	217,180	274
Rhode Island,.....	437,100	534	138,720	164	283,500	179	147,550	138	36,202	43
Connecticut,.....	319,680	335	1,114,725	1,109	12,832	148	199,100	126	1,733,044	1,095	50,866	55
Vermont,.....	101,354	87	16,650	33	1,158	42	3,000	8	24,900	44	62,515	116
New York,.....	2,895,517	3,631	1,566,974	962	112	8,308	203	1,106,203	708	2,456,792	1,713	966,220	1,447
New Jersey,.....	755,050	932	83,575	123	2,010	71	159,302	7	405,955	130	10,000	16
Pennsylvania,.....	1,998,152	1,973	786,982	770	5	21,571	168	2,679,075	245	1,260,170	635	443,610	536
Delaware,.....	314,500	299	22,000	10	3,500	7	10,700	18	12,000	10
Maryland,.....	348,165	723	15,670	36	80	3	13,300	21	312,900	216	152,750	247
Virginia,.....	429,858	445	50,504	150	9,330	262	41,000	52	128,256	219	16,652	40
North Carolina,.....	43,285	89	1,200	43	1,085	40	875	1	16,050	24	1,083	15
South Carolina,.....	65,561	127	13,465	26	167	7	3,000	4
Georgia,.....	131,238	184	7,866	19	95	5	250	1	5,350	6	10,640	10
Alabama,.....	131,825	96	13,875	41	4	428	20	1,650	7	25,700	17	7,311	17
Mississippi,.....	242,225	274	90	7	6,425	3	96,900	20
Louisiana,.....	5,000	30,000	8
Tennessee,.....	257,704	266	57,170	142	564	34	28,460	11	100,870	100	5,400	10
Kentucky,.....	46,074	149	22,350	30	2,341	109	19,060	21	164,080	174	8,820	25
Ohio,.....	875,731	858	393,300	289	3	2,450	70	53,125	37	782,901	589	256,131	401
Indiana,.....	123,808	120	34,263	83	885	47	3,500	2	14,580	26	6,720	28
Illinois,.....	37,720	71	9,750	20	20	238	12	2,400	7	31,200	29	16,112	26
Missouri,.....	190,412	191	959	48	5,450	12	60,300	72	32,050	73
Arkansas,.....	14,065	51	6	1	1,240	5	50
Michigan,.....	47,000	67	1,250	7	195	6	5,000	1	57,900	45	7,000	6
Florida,.....	5,000	8	500	4,000	3
Wisconsin,.....	716	6	12	1	3,500	5
Iowa,.....	40	2
District of Columbia,...	60,300	42	500	2	80	30	17,200	24	28,000	37	3,000	4
TOTAL,.....	10,980,581	13,001	6,451,967	5,492	274	88,073	1,744	4,734,960	1,556	9,779,442	6,677	2,442,950	3,734

MANUFACTURES.—BRICKS AND LIME—WOOL—COTTON.

MANUFACTURES.—SILK—FLAX—MIXED—TOBACCO.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	SILK.					FLAX.			MIXED.			TOBACCO.		
	Reeled, & other sorts.	Value.	Males Emp'd.	Females & Chi'n Emp.	Capital Invested.	Value.	Pre's Emp'd.	Capital Invested.	Val. Produced.	Pre's Emp'd.	Capital Invested.	Articles Value.	Pre's Emp'd.	Capital Invested.
Maine,.....	9½	\$91	1	\$125	\$4,000	\$47,598	280	\$7,640	\$18,150	37	\$6,050
N. Hampshi.	82½	924	5	26	865	50	1	46,800	34	40,750	10,500	17	2,100
Massachus'ts,	4,633½	38,079	30	116	68,719	75,100	41	\$30,050	1,157,035	1,101	644,525	176,264	286	90,500
Rhode Isl'nd,	16	15	448,044	500	167,690	71,560	123	34,900
Connecticut,	6,901½	55,485	23	100	85,430	90	4	40	530,520	1,484	343,900	122,684	233	67,875
Vermont,.....	39	99	5	2	1,150	55	155,276	282	101,740
New York,....	377½	2,415	35	66	8,034	46,429	90	15,000	1,497,067	2,005	675,953	831,570	669	395,530
New Jersey, ..	158½	858	10	7	2,020	83,314	178	105,700	151,352	363	86,500	92,600	106	47,590
Pennsylv'nia,	2,350½	14,644	64	88	88,917	75,672	486	56,511	1,098,810	3,903	1,642,015	550,159	950	287,859
Delaware,....	15	117	1	17,000	34	5,800
Maryland,....	40	2	18	5,000	541,300	1,162	230,958	232,000	278	125,100
Virginia,.....	94½	515	11	10	2,714	4,873	227,861	343	101,462	2,406,671	3,342	1,526,080
N. Carolina, ..	7	55	1	1,866	95	189,868	482	91,065
S. Carolina, ..	46	380	1	3	50	2,450	9	3,500	7	5,000
Georgia,	97	458	14	7	955	225	3	120	9,563	33	6,313
Alabama,	13	99	75	705	2,260	2
Mississippi,	10
Louisiana, ...	70	420	3	150,000	414	95,000
Tennessee, ...	19½	218	14	31	2,500	3,139	142	9,542	24	537	89,462	259	247,475
Kentucky, ...	86	819	3	11	5,467	7,519	249	444	127,875	3,142	39,803	413,585	587	230,400
Ohio,.....	652	3,740	23	27	2,290	11,737	31	242	280,293	552	183,415	212,818	187	68,810
Indiana,.....	9	94	4	1	3	6,851	261	100	46,329	596	13,145	65,659	88	24,706
Illinois,.....	17	235	1	10	1,480	50	11,711	49	8,233	10,139	24	3,093
Missouri,	11,115	40	4,885	89,996	188	51,755
Arkansas,	585	750	3	250
Michigan,....	8	34	2	50	30	5,000	12	1,750
Florida,.....	1½	15	10,480	21	5,240
Wisconsin,...	1	5	1	1,500	4	550
Iowa,.....	2
D. of Colum.	151,510	29	75,350	37,280	16,950
TOTAL,.....	15,745½	119,814	246	521	274,374	322,205	1,628	208,087	6,545,503	15,905	4,368,991	5,819,568	8,384	3,437,191

MANUFACTURES.—HATS, CAPS, BONNETS, Etc.—LEATHER, TANNERIES, SADDLERIES, Etc.

MANUFACTURES.—SOAP AND CANDLES—DISTILLED AND FERMENTED LIQUORS.

STATES AND TERRI- TORIES.	SOAP AND CANDLES.				DISTILLED AND FERMENTED LIQUORS.						
	Soap. Pounds.	Tallow Candles.	Spermaceti & Wax Candles.	Men Em- ployed.	Capital Invested.	Distil- leries.	Gallons Produced.	Brew- eries.	Gallons Produced.	Men Emp'd.	Capital Invested.
Maine,.....	85,455	213,898	3,023	23	\$19,500	3	190,000	7	\$29,000
New Hampshire,.....	10,900	28,845	50,000	20	13,550	5	51,244	1	3,000	7	15,998
Massachusetts,.....	12,560,400	1,257,465	2,162,710	403	873,956	37	5,177,910	7	429,800	154	963,100
Rhode Island,.....	1,237,050	157,250	264,500	57	252,628	4	855,000	3	89,600	42	139,000
Connecticut,.....	337,000	440,790	20,002	39	46,000	70	215,892	42	50,380
Vermont,.....	50,300	28,687	2	2	3,500	1	12,800	5	8,850
New York,.....	11,939,834	4,029,783	353,000	489	618,875	212	11,973,815	83	6,059,122	1,486	3,107,066
New Jersey,.....	483,229	372,546	27	38,400	219	334,017	6	206,375	394	230,870
Pennsylvania,.....	5,097,690	2,316,843	5,002	353	294,442	1,010	6,240,193	87	12,765,974	1,607	1,589,471
Delaware,.....	367,240	159,834	9	24,000	3	39,500	9	8,000
Maryland,.....	1,865,240	731,446	35,000	93	98,600	73	366,213	11	828,140	199	185,790
Virginia,.....	1,200,308	463,525	837	126	28,881	1,454	865,725	5	32,960	1,631	187,212
North Carolina,.....	1,612,825	148,546	335	367	4,754	2,802	1,051,979	17,431	1,422	180,200
South Carolina,.....	586,327	68,011	168	300	251	102,288	219	14,342
Georgia,.....	764,528	141,066	75	2,633	27,126	393	126,746	22	218	28,606
Alabama,.....	219,024	23,047	621	2	3,500	188	127,230	7	200	220	34,212
Mississippi,.....	312,084	31,957	97	14	3,150	2	132	12	910
Louisiana,.....	2,202,200	3,500,030	40,000	75	115,500	5	285,520	1	2,400	27	110,000
Tennessee,.....	594,289	65,388	2	6,000	1,426	1,109,107	6	1,835	1,341	218,182
Kentucky,.....	2,282,426	563,635	315	516	28,765	889	1,763,685	50	214,589	1,092	315,308
Ohio,.....	3,603,036	2,318,456	151	105	186,780	390	6,329,467	59	1,422,584	798	893,119
Indiana,.....	1,135,560	228,938	111	30	13,039	323	1,787,108	20	188,392	500	292,316
Illinois,.....	519,673	117,698	42	25	17,345	150	1,551,694	11	90,300	233	138,155
Missouri,.....	138,000	243,000	15	16,700	293	508,368	7	374,700	365	189,976
Arkansas,.....	142,775	16,541	632	32	200	53	26,415	38	10,205
Michigan,.....	78,100	57,975	6	6,000	34	337,761	10	308,696	116	124,200
Florida,.....	10,887	2,812	168
Wisconsin,.....	64,317	12,909	48	5	3,432	3	8,300	3	14,200	11	14,400
Iowa,.....	9,740	4,436	282	1	2	4,310	3	1,500
District of Columbia,...	310,060	189,150	18	19,000	1	6,000	1	165,000	25	67,000
TOTAL,.....	49,820,497	17,904,507	2,936,951	5,641	2,757,273	10,306	41,402,627	406	23,267,730	12,223	9,147,368

MANUFACTURES.—GLASS, EARTHENWARE, ETC.—SUGAR REFINERIES,
CHOCOLATE, ETC.

GLASS, EARTHENWARE, ETC.					SUGAR REFINERIES, CHOCOLATE, ETC.						
States and Territories.	Glass-houses.	No. of Men Emp.	Articles, incl'd g Mirrors.	Capital Invested.		Refineries.	Value Produced.	Chocolate Value.	Confectry Value.	Men Emp'd.	Capital Invested.
Mo.....	21	31	\$11,353	\$16,900	18	\$6,000
N. H.....	3	85	\$47,000	\$44,000	14	29	6,840	11,200	10	3,100
Mass.....	4	372	471,000	277,000	20	71	27,975	137,300	220	374,300
R. I.....	14,500	15	4,500
Conn.....	2	64	32,000	32,000	14	44	31,880	31,800	16	12,800
Vt.....	2	70	55,000	35,000	8	30	10,350
N. Y.....	13	498	411,371	204,700	47	197	88,450	5,000	386,142	416	474,656
N. J.....	23	1,075	904,700	589,800	22	122	135,850	1,000	2	500
Penn.....	20	835	772,400	714,100	182	322	75,562	14,000	227,050	197	272,450
Del.....	2	9	1,100	6,500	9	2,500
Md.....	1	37	40,000	30,000	23	90	25,120	73,450	102	104,370
Va.....	4	164	146,500	132,000	93	64	10,925	11,400	43,850	15	16,200
N. C.....	16	21	1,531	3,200	1	1,000
S. C.....	8	49	12,950	29,333	112	87,200
Geo.....	6	12	790	5,000	3,100	12	5,500
Ala.....	7	13	11,250	13,800	15	6,120
Miss.....	1	2	200	10,500	2
La.....	1	10	3,000	7,000	20,000	101	351,000
Tenn.....	500	29	50	7,308
Ky.....	2	3,000	16	51	9,670	36,050	28	14,250
Ohio.....	99	199	43,450	60,450	43	26,800
Ind.....	45	79	13,685	4,000	3	1,000
Illin.....	23	56	10,925	2,240	3	825
Mo.....	12	33	7,250	1,000	1	500
Ark.....
Mich.....	1	24	7,322	25,000	3	4	635	3,000	3	1,200
Pa.....
Wisk.....
Iowa.....	4	7	350
D. of C.	3	9	4,450
Total	41	2,220	2,600,903	2,044,100	669	1,612	531,431	79,900	1,143,965	1,355	1,769,571
							3,250,700				

MANUFACTURES.—PAPER—PRINTING AND BINDING.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	PAPER.				PRINTING AND BINDING.							
	Fac-tories.	Value Produced.	All other fabrics of Paper—Cards, &c.	Men Emp'd.	Capital Invested.	Prin'g Offices.	Bind-eries.	Daily Papers.	Weekly Papers.	Semi and Tri-w'kly odicals.	Men Emp'd.	Capital Invested.
Maine,.....	6	\$84,000	89	\$20,600	34	14	3	30	3	196	\$68,200
New Hampshire,.....	13	150,600	\$1,500	111	104,300	36	22	27	256	110,850
Massachusetts,.....	82	1,659,930	56,700	967	1,082,800	104	72	10	67	14	922	416,200
Rhode Island,.....	2	25,000	8,500	15	45,000	16	8	2	10	4	122	35,700
Connecticut,.....	36	596,500	64,000	454	653,800	36	17	2	27	4	368	217,075
Vermont,.....	17	179,720	35,000	195	216,500	29	14	2	26	2	156	194,200
New York,.....	77	673,121	89,637	749	703,550	321	107	34	198	13	3,231	1,876,540
New Jersey,.....	41	562,200	7,000	400	460,100	40	20	4	91	1	198	104,900
Pennsylvania,.....	87	792,335	95,500	794	581,800	224	46	12	165	10	1,709	681,740
Delaware,.....	1	20,800	1,500	15	16,200	6	2	3	3	33	11,450
Maryland,.....	17	195,100	3,000	171	95,400	48	15	7	28	7	376	159,100
Virginia,.....	12	216,245	1,260	181	287,750	50	13	4	35	12	310	168,850
North Carolina,.....	2	8,785	6	5,000	26	4	26	1	103	55,400
South Carolina,.....	1	20,000	30	30,000	16	7	3	12	2	164	131,300
Georgia,.....	24	5	5	24	5	157	134,400
Alabama,.....	22	1	3	24	1	105	98,100
Mississippi,.....	28	1	2	28	1	94	83,510
Louisiana,.....	35	5	11	21	2	392	193,700
Tennessee,.....	5	46,000	14,000	87	93,000	41	5	2	38	6	191	112,500
Kentucky,.....	7	44,000	47	47,500	34	3	5	26	7	226	86,325
Ohio,.....	14	270,202	80,000	305	208,200	159	41	9	107	7	1,175	446,720
Indiana,.....	3	86,457	54,000	100	68,739	69	6	69	4	211	58,505
Illinois,.....	1	2,000	45	5	3	38	2	175	71,300
Missouri,.....	40	6	24	5	143	79,350
Arkansas,.....	9	1	6	3	37	13,100
Michigan,.....	1	7,000	6	20,000	28	2	6	26	119	62,900
Florida,.....	10	1	10	39	35,200
Wisconsin,.....	6	6	24	10,300
Iowa,.....	4	4	15	5,700
District of Columbia,.....	1	1,500	4	5,000	12	10	3	5	6	276	150,700
TOTAL,.....	426	5,641,495	511,597	4,726	4,745,239	1,552	447	138	1,141	227	11,523	5,873,815

**MANUFACTURES.—POWDER MILLS—DRUGS AND MEDICINES, PAINTS
AND DYES—CORDAGE.**

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	POWDER MILLS.			DRUGS AND MEDICINES, PAINTS AND DYES.				CORDAGE.				
	Po'der Mills.	Powder Pounds.	Men Emp'd.	Capital Invested.	Medicinal Drugs, Paints, Dyes, &c. Value	Turpentine & Varnish. Value	Men Emp'd.	Capital Invested.	Rope-walks.	Value Produced.	Men Emp'd.	Capital Invested.
Maine,.....	1	150,000	3	\$7,500	\$9,200	\$700	12	\$3,280	4	\$32,660	34	\$23,000
New Hampshire,.....	7	185,000	11	58,000	10,039	2,289	9	3,589	1	15,000	10	6,000
Massachusetts,.....	14	2,315,215	69	255,000	405,725	25,820	85	224,700	51	852,200	672	555,100
Rhode Island,.....					40,000	5,000	17	30,000	9	49,700	45	28,300
Connecticut,.....	8	662,500	26	77,000	55,400	19,000	22	67,300	16	150,775	107	85,700
Vermont,.....					38,475		32	25,950	2	4,000	9	3,800
New York,.....	8	1,185,000	41	81,500	877,816	431,467	677	1,267,835	46	792,910	597	242,180
New Jersey,.....					127,400	43,000	70	140,800	8	93,075	60	37,305
Pennsylvania,.....	30	1,184,225	58	66,800	2,100,074	7,865	519	2,179,625	39	274,120	272	136,070
Delaware,.....	27	2,100,000	145	220,000	350	100	5	9,500	1	2,500	7	1,000
Maryland,.....	5	669,125	47	46,000	80,100	100	52	85,100	13	141,050	198	70,550
Virginia,.....	10	2,850	11	805	66,633	25	36	61,727	9	37,320	60	32,753
North Carolina,.....	1	200		30	8,635	116,750	73	152,275				
South Carolina,.....					4,100		6	2,100				
Georgia,.....					38,525		28	35,885				
Alabama,.....					16,600		4	16,000				
Mississippi,.....					3,125		4	500				
Louisiana,.....					42,000		10	6,000				
Tennessee,.....	10	10,333	11	1,490	3,337	1,485	15	3,360	28	132,630	258	84,230
Kentucky,.....	11	282,500	58	42,000	26,994	2,000	25	16,630	111	1,292,276	1,888	1,023,130
Ohio,.....	2	222,500	13	18,000	101,880	200	70	126,335	21	89,750	66	37,675
Indiana,.....	1		1		47,720	26	26	17,984	5	5,850	11	2,270
Illinois,.....					19,001	5,000	20	13,350				
Missouri,.....	1	7,500	2	1,050	13,500		8	7,000	21	98,490	139	71,589
Arkansas,.....	1	400		700	400							
Michigan,.....					1,580		3	650				
Florida,.....					200		1	500				
Wisconsin,.....					250							
Iowa,.....					2,340		7					
District of Columbia,.....					10,500		12	9,700	3	14,000	31	24,925
TOTAL,.....	137	8,977,348	496	875,875	4,151,899	660,837	1,848	4,507,675	383	4,078,306	4,464	2,465,577

MANUFACTURES.—CARRIAGES AND WAGONS—MILLS, AND THE ARTICLES PRODUCED.

STATES AND TERRI- TORIES.	CARRIAGES AND WAGONS.			MILLS, AND THE ARTICLES PRODUCED.							
	Value Pro- duced.	Men Em- ployed.	Capital Invested.	Flouring Mills.	Flour Prod'd. Barrels.	Grist Mills.	Saw Mills.	Oil Mills.	Articles. Value.	Men Emp'd.	Capital Invested.
Maine,.....	\$174,310	779	\$75,012	20	6,969	558	1,381	20	\$3,161,592	3,630	\$2,900,565
New Hampshire,.....	232,240	450	114,762	3	800	449	959	9	758,260	1,296	1,149,193
Massachusetts,.....	803,999	1,402	334,660	12	7,436	678	1,252	7	1,771,185	1,808	1,440,152
Rhode Island,.....	78,811	161	36,661	144	123	83,683	166	152,310
Connecticut,.....	929,301	1,289	513,411	7	15,500	384	673	57	543,509	895	727,440
Vermont,.....	162,097	437	101,570	7	4,495	312	1,081	20	1,083,124	1,374	999,750
New York,.....	2,364,461	4,710	1,485,023	338	1,861,385	1,750	6,356	63	16,953,280	10,807	14,648,814
New Jersey,.....	1,397,149	1,834	644,966	64	168,797	509	597	21	3,446,895	1,288	2,641,200
Pennsylvania,.....	1,207,252	2,783	560,681	736	1,193,405	2,554	5,389	166	9,424,955	7,990	7,869,034
Delaware,.....	49,417	143	25,150	21	76,194	104	123	737,971	288	294,150
Maryland,.....	357,622	690	154,955	189	466,708	478	430	9	3,267,250	898	1,069,671
Virginia,.....	647,815	1,592	311,625	764	1,041,526	2,714	1,987	61	7,855,499	3,964	5,184,669
North Carolina,.....	301,601	698	173,318	323	87,641	2,033	1,056	46	1,552,096	1,830	1,670,228
South Carolina,.....	189,270	420	132,690	164	58,458	1,016	746	19	1,201,678	2,122	1,668,804
Georgia,.....	249,065	461	93,820	114	55,158	1,051	677	6	1,268,715	1,581	1,491,973
Alabama,.....	88,891	235	49,074	51	23,664	797	524	16	1,225,425	1,386	1,413,107
Mississippi,.....	49,693	132	34,345	16	1,809	806	309	28	486,864	923	1,219,845
Louisiana,.....	23,350	51	15,780	3	276	139	50	706,785	972	1,870,795
Tennessee,.....	219,897	513	80,878	255	67,881	1,565	977	26	1,020,664	2,100	1,310,195
Kentucky,.....	168,724	533	79,378	258	273,088	1,515	718	23	2,437,937	2,067	1,650,689
Ohio,.....	701,228	1,490	290,540	536	1,311,954	1,325	2,883	112	8,868,213	4,661	4,931,024
Indiana,.....	163,135	481	78,116	204	224,624	846	1,248	54	2,329,134	2,224	2,077,018
Illinois,.....	144,362	307	59,263	98	172,657	640	785	18	2,417,826	2,204	2,147,618
Missouri,.....	97,112	201	45,074	64	49,363	636	393	9	960,058	1,326	1,266,019
Arkansas,.....	2,675	15	1,555	10	1,430	292	88	1	330,847	400	288,257
Michigan,.....	20,075	59	13,150	93	202,880	97	491	1,832,363	1,144	2,460,200
Florida,.....	11,000	15	5,900	62	65	2	189,650	410	488,950
Wisconsin,.....	2,600	8	325	4	900	29	124	\$50,993	850	561,650
Iowa,.....	1,200	3	1,400	6	4,340	37	75	95,425	154	166,650
District of Columbia,.....	59,535	97	38,550	4	25,500	4	1	183,370	30	98,500
TOTAL,.....	10,897,887	21,994	5,551,632	4,364	7,404,562	23,661	31,650	843	76,545,246	60,788	65,858,470

MANUFACTURES.—SHIPS AND OTHER VESSELS—HOUSEHOLD FURNITURE—HOUSES.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	SHIPS, ETC.		HOUSEHOLD FURNITURE.			HOUSES.		
	Ships and Vessels Built.	Value.	Men Employed.	Capital Invested.	Brick and Stone Houses Built.	Wooden Houses Built.	Men Employed.	Cost of Construction.
Maine,.....	\$1,844,902	\$204,875	1,435	\$668,558	34	1,674	2,482	\$733,067
New Hampshire,.....	78,000	105,827	233	59,984	90	434	935	470,715
Massachusetts,.....	1,349,994	1,090,008	2,424	962,494	324	1,249	2,947	2,767,134
Rhode Island,.....	41,500	121,131	195	83,300	6	292	887	379,010
Connecticut,.....	428,900	253,675	786	342,770	95	517	1,599	1,086,295
Vermont,.....	72,000	83,275	190	49,850	72	468	912	344,896
New York,.....	797,317	1,971,776	3,660	1,610,810	1,233	5,198	16,768	7,265,844
New Jersey,.....	344,240	176,566	517	130,525	205	861	2,086	1,092,052
Pennsylvania,.....	668,015	1,155,692	2,373	716,707	1,995	2,428	9,974	5,354,480
Delaware,.....	35,400	16,300	130	34,800	47	104	299	145,850
Maryland,.....	279,771	305,360	834	339,336	389	592	2,026	1,078,770
Virginia,.....	136,807	289,391	675	143,320	402	2,604	4,694	1,367,393
North Carolina,.....	62,800	35,002	223	57,980	38	1,822	1,707	410,264
South Carolina,.....	60,000	28,155	241	133,600	111	1,594	2,398	1,527,576
Georgia,.....	49,780	95	29,090	38	2,591	2,274	693,116
Alabama,.....	41,671	53	18,430	67	472	882	739,871
Mississippi,.....	13,925	34,450	41	28,610	144	2,247	2,487	1,175,513
Louisiana,.....	80,500	2,300	129	576,050	248	619	1,484	2,736,944
Tennessee,.....	229	79,580	203	30,650	193	1,098	1,467	427,402
Kentucky,.....	273,350	453	139,295	485	1,757	2,883	1,039,172
Ohio,.....	522,855	761,146	1,928	534,317	970	2,764	6,060	3,776,823
Indiana,.....	107,223	211,481	564	91,022	346	4,270	5,519	1,241,312
Illinois,.....	39,200	84,410	244	62,223	334	4,133	5,737	2,065,255
Missouri,.....	413	2,202	1,966	1,441,573
Arkansas,.....	500	20,293	45	7,810	21	1,083	1,251	1,141,174
Michigan,.....	10,500	22,494	65	28,050	39	1,280	1,978	571,005
Florida,.....	14,100	36	18,300	9	306	689	327,913
Wisconsin,.....	7,159	6,945	29	5,740	7	509	644	212,085
Iowa,.....	4,600	12	1,350	14	483	324	135,987
District of Columbia,.....	20,257	125,872	180	85,000	60	33	142	168,910
Total,.....	7,016,094	7,555,405	18,003	6,989,971	8,429	45,684	85,501	41,917,401

MANUFACTURES.—MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS—ALL OTHER MANUFACTURES.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS.			ALL OTHER MANUFACTURES.		
	<i>Musical Instruments. Value.</i>	<i>Men Employed.</i>	<i>Capital Invested.</i>	<i>All those not enumerated. Value.</i>	<i>Capital Invested.</i>	<i>Total Capital Invested in Manufactures.</i>
Maine,.....	\$3,010	4	\$2,001	\$1,042,927	\$450,749	\$7,105,620
N. Hampshi.	26,750	47	14,050	829,472	409,246	9,252,448
Massachus's,	340,085	246	243,760	6,560,234	3,287,986	41,774,446
Rhode Isl'nd,	7,200	9	6,075	1,658,193	820,450	10,696,136
Connecticut,	6,125	8	7,050	2,266,994	1,254,576	13,669,139
Vermont,.....	2,290	6	1,750	488,796	305,487	4,326,440
New York,...	472,910	438	408,775	9,615,206	6,078,507	55,252,779
New Jersey,.....				1,999,266	1,385,208	11,517,582
Pennsylv'nia,	33,728	109	35,656	3,204,403	2,083,398	31,815,105
Delaware,.....				293,677	145,560	1,589,215
Maryland,...	16,400	15	4,000	774,071	517,818	6,450,284
Virginia,.....	1,005	2	1,000	653,417	322,439	11,360,861
N. Carolina,...	938	3	203	127,516	62,550	3,838,900
S. Carolina,.....				82,885	46,442	3,216,970
Georgia,.....	8	2		141,807	71,831	2,899,565
Alabama,....	21			424,943	139,411	2,130,064
Mississippi,...				144,347	79,727	1,797,727
Louisiana,.....				5,000	417,699	6,430,699
Tennessee,...				490,671	189,846	3,731,580
Kentucky,...	4,500	6	5,000	697,029	551,762	5,945,259
Ohio,.....	8,454	11	5,000	1,549,592	5,329,734	16,905,257
Indiana,.....				684,771	303,278	4,132,043
Illinois,.....				427,460	206,919	3,136,512
Missouri,.....	500	2	50	230,083	282,965	2,704,405
Arkansas,.....				27,386	23,905	424,467
Michigan,.....				132,870	97,821	3,112,240
Florida,.....				37,280	5,000	669,490
Wisconsin,...				51,612	26,162	635,926
Iowa,.....				34,445	8,450	199,645
D. of Colum.				109,000	84,800	1,005,775
TOTAL,.....	923,924	908	734,370	34,785,353	25,019,726	267,726,579

STATISTICS OF COINAGE.

MINT OF THE UNITED STATES.

We have received the annual report of R. M. Patterson, director of the national mint, as communicated by the President of the United States to the senate, February 2, 1842. It will be seen by this report that the coinage executed at the mint in Philadelphia, in 1841, amounted to \$1,304,199, comprising \$710,475 in gold, \$577,750 in silver, and \$15,073 in copper coins, and composed of 5,051,831 pieces, as follows:—gold, eagles, 63,131; half-eagles, 15,833; silver, dollars, 173,000; half-dollars, 310,000; quarter-dollars, 120,000; dimes, 1,622,500; half-dimes, 1,150,000; copper cents, 1,597,367.

The deposits of gold at Philadelphia, within the year 1841, amounted to \$715,173, and those of silver to \$562,446. Of the gold, \$248,478 was derived from the mines of the United States, viz:—from Virginia, \$25,736; North Carolina, \$76,431; South Carolina, \$3,440; Georgia, \$139,796; Tennessee, \$1,212; Alabama, \$1,863. Of the gold coined at the Mint of the United States, from 1824 to 1841, \$604,331 was from

mines in Virginia; \$2,815,235 from North Carolina; \$355,559 from South Carolina; \$2,051,109 from Georgia; \$15,116 from Tennessee; \$6,794 from Alabama. The total amount of gold, from American mines, deposited for coinage since 1824, amounts to \$6,915,142. For the first time, too, deposits of domestic silver, amounting in value to \$4,198, have also been received. The ore is an argentiferous carbonate of lead, found in Davidson county, North Carolina; and the proprietors of the mine seem confident that it will be largely productive.

At the New Orleans branch mint, the coinage in 1841 amounted to \$540,200, comprising \$85,200 in gold, and \$555,000 in silver coin, and composed of 3,693,730 pieces, of which 2,822,500 were dimes and half-dimes.

The branch mint at Charlotte received during the year deposits of gold to the value of \$132,588, and its coinage amounted to \$133,037½, composed of 21,467 half-eagles, and 10,281 quarter-eagles.

The branch mint at Dahlonega received deposits of gold to the value of \$161,974, and coined 30,495 half-eagles, and 4,164 quarter-eagles, amounting together to \$162,885.

The United States Mint was established in 1793, since which time, it and its branches up to the year 1841, inclusive, have coined 257,864,336 pieces, amounting in value to \$86,331,486 76.

The principal mint and its branches have been all in good condition throughout the year, and there has been no unusual interruption in their operations; but, owing to the small supply of bullion, they have been only partially employed, so that the amount of work done by them has fallen far below what they are able to execute. The whole coinage of all the mints was less than two and a quarter millions, while the Philadelphia mint alone is capable of coining twelve millions, and in 1836 did actually coin more than seven and three quarters.

The following tables, derived from the official report, exhibit:—

- 1. A statement of the coinage at the Mint of the United States, Philadelphia, in the year 1841.
- 2. A statement of the deposits for coinage, at the Mint of the United States, in Philadelphia, in the year 1841.
- 3. Tabular statement of the amount of gold coined at the Mint of the United States, from the commencement of its operations until the 31st of December, 1841.
- 4. Tabular statement of the amount of silver coined during the same period.
- 5. Tabular statement of the amount of copper coined during the same period.
- 6. Recapitulation, showing the whole coinage in pieces and value, from 1793 to 1841.
- 7. Recapitulation of the coinage of the Mint of the United States and its branches, from the commencement of operations until December 31, 1841.

1.—STATEMENT OF THE COINAGE AT THE MINT OF THE UNITED STATES, PHILAD., IN 1841.

DENOMINATIONS.	Pieces.	Whole No. of Pieces.	Value.	Whole Value.
Gold—Eagles,	63,131	78,964	\$631,310	\$710,475 00
Half-Eagles,	15,833		79,165	
Silver—Dollars,	173,000	3,375,500	173,000	577,750 00
Half-Dollars,	310,000		155,000	
Quarter-Dollars,	120,000		30,000	
Dimes,	1,622,500		162,250	
Half-Dimes,	1,150,000		57,500	
Copper—Cents,	1,597,367	15,973 67
TOTAL,	5,051,831	1,304,198 67

2.—STATEMENT OF THE DEPOSITS FOR COINAGE, AT THE MINT OF THE UNITED STATES, PHILADELPHIA, IN THE YEAR 1841.

DEPOSITS.	Value.	Whole Value.
<i>Gold</i> —From mines in the United States,.....	\$248,478	\$715,173
Coins of the United States, old standard,	5,762	
Foreign coins,	295,838	
Foreign bullion,.....	156,848	
Jewelry,.....	8,247	
Total of gold,.....		
<i>Silver</i> —Bullion from North Carolina,.....	4,198	562,446
Foreign bullion,	210,546	
Mexican dollars,.....	272,320	
Dollars of South America,.....	14,292	
European coins,	55,692	
Plate,.....	5,398	
Total of silver,.....		
TOTAL,.....		1,277,619

3.—TABULAR STATEMENT OF THE AMOUNT OF GOLD COINED AT THE MINT OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM THE COMMENCEMENT OF ITS OPERATIONS UNTIL DECEMBER 31, 1841.

PERIODS.	<i>Eagles.</i> <i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Half-Eagles.</i> <i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Quarter-Eagles.</i> <i>Pieces.</i>	TOTAL GOLD COINAGE.	
				<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
1793.....	2,795	8,707	11,502	\$71,485 00
1794.....					
1795.....					
1796.....	6,934	6,196	963	14,093	102,727 50
1797.....	8,323	3,609	850	12,791	103,422 50
1798.....	7,974	24,867	614	33,455	205,610 00
1799.....	17,483	7,451	480	25,414	213,285 00
1800.....	25,965	11,622	37,587	317,760 00
1801.....	29,254	26,006	55,260	422,570 00
1802.....	15,090	53,176	2,612	70,878	423,310 00
1803.....	8,979	33,506	423	42,908	258,377 50
1804.....	9,795	30,475	3,327	43,597	258,642 50
1805.....	33,183	1,781	34,964	170,367 50
1806.....	64,093	1,616	65,709	324,505 00
1807.....	84,093	6,812	90,905	437,495 00
1808.....	55,578	2,710	58,288	284,665 00
1809.....	33,875	33,875	169,375 00
1810.....	100,287	100,287	501,435 00
1811.....	99,581	99,581	497,905 00
1812.....	58,087	58,087	290,435 00
1813.....	95,428	95,428	477,140 00
1814.....	15,454	15,454	77,270 00
1815.....	635	635	3,175 00
1816.....
1817.....
1818.....	48,588	48,588	242,940 00
1819.....	51,723	51,723	258,615 00
1820.....	263,806	263,806	1,319,030 00
1821.....	34,641	6,448	41,089	189,325 00
1822.....	17,796	17,796	88,980 00
1823.....	14,485	14,485	72,425 00
1824.....	17,340	2,600	19,940	93,200 00
1825.....	29,060	4,434	33,494	156,385 00

TABLE 3.—GOLD COINAGE, ETC.—Continued.

PERIODS.	Eagles. Pieces.	Half-Eagles. Pieces.	Quarter- Eagles. Pieces.	TOTAL GOLD COINAGE.	
				Pieces.	Value.
1826.....		18,069	760	18,829	92,245 00
1827.....		24,913	2,800	27,713	131,565 00
1828.....		28,029		28,029	140,145 00
1829.....		57,442	3,403	60,845	295,717 50
1830.....		126,351	4,540	130,891	643,105 00
1831.....		140,594	4,520	145,114	714,270 00
1832.....		157,487	4,400	161,887	798,435 00
1833.....		193,630	4,160	197,790	978,550 00
1834.....		732,169	117,370	849,539	3,954,270 00
1835.....		371,534	131,402	502,936	2,186,175 00
1836.....		553,147	547,986	1,101,133	4,135,700 00
1837.....		207,121	45,080	252,201	1,148,305 00
1838.....	7,200	286,588	47,030	340,818	1,622,515 00
1839.....	38,248	118,143	27,021	183,412	1,040,747 50
1840.....	47,338	137,382	18,859	203,579	1,207,437 50
1841.....	63,131	15,833		78,964	710,475 00
TOTAL.....	288,509	4,491,780	995,010	5,775,299	27,831,515 00

4.—TABULAR STATEMENT OF THE AMOUNT OF SILVER COINED AT THE MINT OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1793 TO 1841.

PERIODS.	Dollars. Pieces.	Half- Dollars. Pieces.	Quarter- Dollars. Pieces.	Dimes. Pieces.	Half- Dimes. Pieces.	TOTAL SILVER COINAGE.	
						Pieces.	Value.
1793.....							
1794.....	204,791	323,144			86,416	614,351	\$370,683 00
1795.....							
1796.....	72,920	3,918	5,894	22,135	10,230	115,097	79,077 50
1797.....	7,776		252	25,261	44,527	77,816	12,591 45
1798.....	327,536			27,550		355,086	330,291 00
1799.....	423,515					423,515	423,515 00
1800.....	220,920			21,760	24,000	266,680	224,296 00
1801.....	54,454			24,640	33,910	153,293	74,758 00
1802.....	41,650			10,975	13,010	95,525	58,343 00
1803.....	66,064			33,040	37,850	168,669	87,118 00
1804.....	19,570		6,738	8,265		191,092	100,340 50
1805.....	321		121,394	120,780	15,600	469,817	149,368 50
1806.....			206,124			1,045,700	471,319 00
1807.....			220,643	165,000		1,437,219	597,448 75
1808.....						1,368,600	684,300 00
1809.....				44,710		1,450,520	707,376 00
1810.....				6,355		1,282,631	638,773 50
1811.....				65,180		1,268,824	608,348 00
1812.....						1,628,059	814,029 50
1813.....						1,241,903	620,951 50
1814.....				421,500		1,460,575	561,687 50
1815.....			69,232			69,232	17,308 00
1816.....		47,150	20,003			67,153	28,575 75
1817.....		1,215,567				1,215,567	607,783 50
1818.....		1,960,322	361,174			2,321,496	1,070,454 50
1819.....		2,208,000	144,000			2,352,000	1,140,000 00
1820.....		751,122	127,444	942,587		1,821,153	501,686 70
1821.....		1,305,797	216,851	1,186,512		2,709,160	825,789 45
1822.....		1,559,573	64,080	100,000		1,723,653	805,806 50
1823.....		1,694,200	17,800	440,000		2,152,000	895,550 00

TABLE 4.—SILVER COINAGE, ETC.—Continued.

5.—TABULAR STATEMENT OF THE AMOUNT OF COPPER COINED AT THE MINT OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1793 TO 1841.

PERIODS.	Cents. Pieces.	Half-Cents. Pieces.	TOTAL COPPER COINAGE.	
			Pieces.	Value
1793.....	1,066,033	142,534	1,208,567	\$11,973 00
1794.....				
1795.....				
1796.....	974,700	115,480	1,090,180	10,384 40
1797.....	897,510	107,048	1,004,558	9,510 34
1798.....	979,700	979,700	9,797 00
1799.....	904,585	12,167	916,752	9,106 68
1800.....	2,822,175	211,530	3,033,705	29,279 40
1801.....	1,362,837	1,362,837	13,628 37
1802.....	3,435,100	14,366	3,449,466	34,422 83
1803.....	2,471,353	97,900	2,569,253	25,203 03
1804.....	756,838	1,055,312	1,812,150	12,844 94
1805.....	941,116	814,464	1,755,580	13,483 48
1806.....	348,000	356,000	704,000	5,860 00
1807.....	727,221	476,000	1,203,221	9,652 21
1808.....	1,109,000	400,000	1,509,000	13,090 00
1809.....	222,867	1,154,672	1,377,439	8,001 53
1810.....	1,458,500	215,000	1,673,500	15,660 00
1811.....	218,025	63,140	281,165	2,495 95
1812.....	1,075,500	1,075,500	10,755 00
1813.....	418,000	418,000	4,180 00
1814.....	357,830	357,830	3,578 30
1815.....
1816.....	2,820,982	2,820,982	28,209 82
1817.....	3,948,400	3,948,400	39,484 00
1818.....	3,167,000	3,167,000	31,670 00
1819.....	2,671,000	2,671,000	26,710 00
1820.....	4,407,550	4,407,550	44,075 50
1821.....	389,000	389,000	3,890 00

TABLE 5.—COPPER COINAGE.—Continued.

PERIODS.	Cents. Pieces.	Half Cents. Pieces.	TOTAL COPPER COINAGE.	
			Pieces.	Value.
1822.....	2,072,339	2,072,339	\$20,723 39
1823.....
1824.....	1,262,000	1,262,000	12,620 00
1825.....	1,461,100	63,000	1,524,100	14,926 00
1826.....	1,517,425	234,000	1,751,425	16,344 25
1827.....	2,357,732	2,357,732	23,577 32
1828.....	2,260,624	606,000	2,866,624	25,636 24
1829.....	1,414,500	487,000	1,901,500	16,580 00
1830.....	1,711,500	1,711,500	17,115 00
1831.....	3,359,260	2,200	3,361,460	33,603 60
1832.....	2,362,000	2,362,000	23,620 00
1833.....	2,739,000	154,000	2,893,000	28,160 00
1834.....	1,855,100	120,000	1,975,100	19,151 00
1835.....	3,878,400	141,000	4,019,400	39,489 00
1836.....	2,111,000	398,000	2,509,000	23,100 00
1837.....	5,558,300	5,558,300	55,583 00
1838.....	6,370,200	6,370,200	63,702 00
1839.....	3,128,661	3,128,661	31,286 61
1840.....	2,462,700	2,462,700	24,627 00
1841.....	1,597,367	1,597,367	15,973 67
TOTAL.....	89,430,030	7,440,713	96,870,743	931,503 86

6.—RECAPITULATION OF THE FOREGOING FIVE TABLES, SHOWING THE WHOLE COINAGE, IN
PIECES AND VALUE, FROM 1793 TO 1841.

PERIODS.	Whole Coinage.		PERIODS.	Whole Coinage.	
	Pieces.	Value.		Pieces.	Value.
1793	1,834,420	\$453,541 80	1819	5,074,723	\$1,425,325 00
1794			1820	6,492,509	1,864,786 20
1795			1821	3,139,249	1,018,977 45
1796	1,219,370	192,129 40	1822	3,813,788	915,509 69
1797	1,095,165	125,524 29	1823	2,166,485	967,975 00
1798	1,368,241	545,698 00	1824	4,786,894	1,658,297 00
1799	1,365,681	645,906 68	1825	5,178,760	1,735,894 00
1800	3,337,972	571,335 40	1826	5,774,434	2,110,679 25
1801	1,571,390	510,956 37	1827	9,097,845	3,024,342 32
1802	3,615,869	516,075 83	1828	6,196,853	1,741,381 24
1803	2,780,830	370,698 53	1829	7,674,501	2,306,875 50
1804	2,046,839	371,827 94	1830	8,357,191	3,155,620 00
1805	2,260,361	333,239 48	1831	11,792,284	3,923,473 60
1806	1,815,409	801,084 00	1832	9,128,387	3,401,055 00
1807	2,731,345	1,044,595 96	1833	10,307,790	3,765,710 00
1808	2,935,888	982,055 00	1834	11,637,643	7,388,423 00
1809	2,861,834	884,752 53	1835	15,996,342	5,668,667 00
1810	3,056,418	1,155,868 50	1836	13,719,333	7,764,900 00
1811	1,649,570	1,108,740 95	1837	13,010,721	3,299,898 00
1812	2,761,646	1,115,219 50	1838	15,336,518	3,979,217 00
1813	1,755,331	1,102,271 50	1839	9,260,345	3,021,170 11
1814	1,833,859	642,535 80	1840	7,053,084	2,260,667 50
1815	69,867	20,483 00	1841	5,051,831	1,304,198 67
1816	2,888,135	56,785 57	TOTAL,...	247,604,001	83,446,700 76
1817	5,163,967	647,267 50			
1818	5,537,084	1,345,064 50			

7.—RECAPITULATION OF THE COINAGE AT THE MINT OF THE UNITED STATES, AND ITS BRANCHES, FROM THE COMMENCEMENT OF THEIR OPERATIONS UNTIL DEC. 31, 1841.

Commenced Operations.	MINTS.	Whole Coinage. Pieces.	Whole Coinage. Value.
1793	United States Mint, Philadelphia,.....	247,604,001	\$83,446,700 76
1838	Branch at Charlotte, North Carolina,..	125,996	507,025 00
1838	Branch at Dahlonega, Georgia,.....	114,283	517,990 00
1838	Branch at New Orleans,.....	10,020,056	1,859,693 00
	TOTAL,.....	257,864,336	86,331,408 76

GOLD AND SILVER COINS.

The following report has been submitted to congress by R. M. Patterson, director of the mint, in compliance with a resolution of the House of Representatives. It exhibits the fineness and value by weight of certain foreign gold and silver coins.

Gold coins.	Fineness in thousandths.	Value per dwt.
Great Britain, sovereign.....	915.5	94.62 c.
France, pieces of 40 and 20 francs.....	899.	92.92
Spain, doubloon and parts.....	866.	89.51
Mexico, "	866.	89.51
Peru, "	868.	89.71
Chili, "	868.	89.71
Columbia, doubloons of Bogota.....	870.	89.92
" " Popayan.....	858.	88.68
New Grenada, doubloons, 1837-'38.....	871.	90.02
Bolivia, "	870.	89.92
Central America, "	830.	85.79
La Plata, "	{ 815. to	84.24 to }
	{ 868.	89.71 }
Portugal, johannes and half.....	914.	94.46
" crown (of 500 reis) and half, since 1838.....	914.	94.46
Brazil, piece of 6,400 reis, of 1838.....	914.	94.46

Silver coins.	Fineness in thousandths.	Value per ounce.
Spain, dollar of the Peninsula.....	900.	116.36
" pillar dollar of Spanish America	898.	116.10
France, crown, (ceased to be coined in 1793).....	909.	117.53
" five-franc piece.....	900.	116.36
Mexico, average of various mints, and in the proportion usually presented here	897.	115.97
Peru and North and South Peru dollar	901.	116.49
Chili dollar.....	906.	117.13
Central American dollar.....	896.	115.84
Brazil, restamped dollar of 960 reis.....	898.	116.10

The value of the gold coins, as ascertained by assay, is, in nearly every case, less than the legal value as established by the act of 8th June, 1834. This will be seen by the following schedule :

	Value by law.	Value by assay.
Gold coins of Great Britain.....	94.8 cents.....	94.62 cents.
Portugal.....	94.8 "	94.46 "
Brazil.....	94.8 "	94.46 "
France.....	93.1 "	92.92 "
Spain.....	89.9 "	89.51 "
Mexico.....	89.9 "	89.51 "
Columbia, Bogota	89.9 "	89.52 "
" Popayan	89.9 "	88.68 "

The general over-valuation of foreign gold coins, (says the director,) has its origin in two circumstances; the first is, that the coins in question were assumed to reach their legal standard; an assumption not confirmed by our assays. Thus, for example, the fineness of the coins of Great Britain, Portugal, and Brazil, is estimated at 22 carats, (corresponding to 916 1.3 thousandths,) whereas our assays show the first to be but 915 1.2, and the two last but 914 thousandths. A second cause of this over-valuation originates from the fact, that by the law of January 18, 1837, the standard of our gold coins was raised from 889.225 thousandths to 900, while their weight remained unaltered; so that the pure gold in our coins is held at a somewhat less nominal value since the change of standard than it was before. A corresponding diminution was of course called for in the legal value given to the pure gold in foreign coins, but it has not yet been made.

The act of June 28, 1834, is therefore erroneous and impolitic, because it stamps a greater value upon foreign gold coins than upon our own, and thus misleads the public, and prevents recoinage. It is unnecessary, because the mints of the United States are abundantly sufficient for all the gold coinage required for circulation; and it is inconvenient, because the foreign coins which it makes a legal tender do not correspond in value and denomination with our money of account. I would therefore beg leave, most respectfully, to recommend that the act in question be repealed.

The act of June 25, 1834, making Spanish American dollars a legal currency at 100 cents each, and French five-franc pieces at 93 cents each, does not lead to any injustice that I am aware of.

COINAGE OF ENGLAND.
A Statement of all Gold, Silver, and Copper Moneys coined at the British Royal Mint, from the year 1816 to 1840, inclusive.

COINS.	Weight. Pounds.	Number of Pieces.	Value.	Total Value.
<i>Gold—</i>				
Double Sovereigns,.....	690	16,119	£32,240	
Sovereigns,.....	1,187,124	55,468,389	55,468,396	
Half-Sovereigns,.....	91,253	8,527,681	4,263,843	
<i>Silver—</i>				£59,764,480
Crowns,.....	140,144	1,849,905	462,476	
Half-Crowns,.....	1,190,876	31,438,434	3,929,804	
Shillings,.....	1,540,080	101,645,280	5,082,264	
Sixpences,.....	441,852	58,324,595	1,458,114	
Fourpences,.....	52,140	10,325,320	177,062	
<i>Maunday Money—</i>				
Fourpences,.....	306	60,720	1,012	
Threepences,.....	270	71,368	892	
Twopences,.....	225	89,100	742	
Pence,.....	272	215,424	897	
<i>Copper—</i>	<i>Tons.</i>			11,108,265
Pence,.....	382½	21,450,240	85,624	
Half-Pence,.....	257½	28,573,440	57,680	
Farthings,.....	228½	49,093,632	51,139	
				194,443

ERROR CORRECTED.—In the Merchants' Magazine, for February, 1842, in an article on "Lake Navigation," the tonnage of Buffalo was put down at 4,196 tons. The Buffalo Commercial Advertiser has enabled us to correct this error, by furnishing the following statement of the tonnage of Buffalo, derived from the office of the collector of that port:—24 steamboats, the aggregate tonnage of which is 7,642 tons; 53 schooners, do. 5,043; 9 brigs, do. 1,662; 2 ships, do. 644; total aggregate of tonnage, 14,991 tons.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

BALTIMORE MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.

We take great pleasure in laying before our readers the second annual report of the board of directors of the Mercantile Library Association of Baltimore. It exhibits gratifying evidence of the onward progress of that young and flourishing association. Eminently calculated as such institutions are, to elevate the moral and intellectual character of the future merchants of our country, their importance cannot, we think, be too highly estimated.

"With the swift revolution of another year, has been borne to us the second anniversary of our association. The progress that has been made at this early stage of its existence, and the prospects which have opened for it, are such as show that the warmest anticipations of its friends have been more than realized. The departments of the library and reading-room, of lectures and of classes for instruction in languages, all in their advancing state, promise a valuable maturity; which once attained, we shall realize through these, the poles of its magnetic influence, an hundred fold the benefits the association now confers.

"The number of our active members the first year, as in the report at its first anniversary you were informed, was an *hundred and twenty-five*; of our honorary members, *one hundred and forty-one*. The accessions to the former, during the present year, have been one hundred and fifty-eight: making, with a deduction from the whole of those who have resigned, or having become merchants, are now classed as honorary members, a total at the present time of *two hundred and sixty-two*. Much useful information in regard to the association, has been disseminated this year among the clerks of the city, chiefly by the committee some time since appointed to obtain active members; and to their efforts in part may doubtless be traced the increased popularity which it is attaining with this class. Fifty-three names are reported by them as having been obtained during the period they were engaged; over an hundred others giving notice of their intention to join at an early period.

"Our list of honorary members numbers *one hundred and fifty*. The slight diminution of numbers which the list has suffered as compared with that of last year, is attributable to the fact, that the committee appointed by the board to obtain renewals of honorary subscriptions during the present year, was able to visit only a portion of the city. The favor with which our enterprise has been heretofore looked upon by the merchants, and the liberality which they have exercised in its behalf, warrant us in anticipating a more favorable result for the ensuing year.

"Although the privileges which the institution extends to its members are, at this period of its existence, such only as few merchants need go beyond their own firesides to seek, yet we trust that it will always be remembered that no small share of the benefit resulting from its operation will, in the end, accrue to the merchants, if to them the cultivation of character, fixedness of habit, and enlarged information of those who serve them, be indeed a benefit. These our association claims to confer; its instruments are around us; and of the nightly recurring numbers who frequent the rooms, not a few, we believe, may date their preservation from frivolous and vicious associations, from the open avenues to dissipation with which even our comparatively moral city abounds, to their connection with this institution. This fact may have been before pressed upon the notice of the friends of our undertaking, but may well bear a repetition at this time, for the evidence upon which it is founded grows stronger and clearer from year to year. It should be the most ardent wish of our hearts to see its usefulness perpetuated to that period when the excellencies it shall be acknowledged to have aided to form in many, may be the proudest monument to its praise.

"As to those of our recent active members who have thus early in our history entered upon the sphere of their duties as merchants, it is to be hoped, if in aught they availed themselves of the teachings of these silent monitors around us, that their future career may not be untouched by their kindly influence. If this association is hereafter to become a great school for our incipient merchants, as there is reason to hope from other examples it may, it will prove an Alma Mater deserving of reverence in the memory of her children, far greater than that which the scholar lavishes on the classic halls of his youth. If at a period when the career of life is generally decided—when the dreams

of studious ambition, if ever indulged in, have been forever laid aside, and the young man begins to look out upon, and to feel the harder realities of life—if then, rich in all her gifts, our association shall stretch forth her fostering arms, and soothing the hours of his repose from toil, shall, if need be, clothe the nakedness of his mind, and feed the dearth of his sympathies, how worthy the claim it shall put forth on his fervent gratitude, his enduring recollection!

“The number of volumes in the library at the close of the last year was *fourteen hundred*, including some three hundred and fifty on deposit and not yet withdrawn; those now on record amount to *twenty-one hundred*, without enumerating many more complete works yet unbound. In the works thus accumulated, information sufficiently various is presented, and for our numbers an ample supply, although without that just apportionment in the various classes of knowledge which time alone can give. As will perhaps be apparent, we have aimed at a judicious combination of the entertaining with the useful, in the hope of supplanting that perverted taste, which is so prevalent in favor of superficial reading; a passion, in fact, which frequently seeks its gratification at the expense of all genuine taste and feeling, and apparently without the ability to discriminate among a large number of the indifferent productions of that much abused department of authorship—Fiction. With our readers, however, a healthy taste generally prevails—a circumstance we feel gratified to note.

“The number of deliveries of books recorded this year, is *four thousand two hundred and four*.

“In the composition of works of history, biography, travels, &c., it has been found that an attractive style is by no means inconsistent with critical taste—a fact which we rejoice it has been left to *American* scholarship especially to prove. By this we have accordingly profited, and the character of a large proportion of our individual works, no less than the general character of the whole collection, will manifest it.

“In the department of the library, we have to acknowledge a valuable donation, received a few days since from BERNARD U. CAMPBELL, Esq., of Ellicott's Mills, in the Prices Current of the Baltimore Market for *twenty-eight years*—a work invaluable for purposes of reference, and no less accurate than useful. A number of volumes have also been received of WM. GWYNN, Esq., several of which are valuable for their historical interest. Many important documents of the late and previous sessions of Congress have been forwarded to us by the Hon. J. P. KENNEDY—others were received from the Hon. SOL. HILLEN, Jr. To each of these gentlemen the board returns its acknowledgments.

“We invite the attention of members to the importance of the service they, or through their influence, their friends might render the association by the presentation of books, a favor which but few of them are entirely unable to accord with convenience to themselves. The number obtained through our first efforts should be an inducement to the repetition of similar efforts; and we trust, however enlarged our means, or apparently adequate to our purposes, that to our friends occasion may never seem wanting for their kind offices in aid of an undertaking so difficult and expensive to ourselves.

“The number of periodicals subscribed for is thirty; they contain all that is at present desirable in the standard literature of this country or of Great Britain. They are as follows: weekly 10; monthly 13; quarterly 7.

“The treasurer's report shows our income to have increased this year by over a thousand dollars. A new source of profit has arisen from our lectures—the course of last winter realizing the gross amount of \$1,596, or a nett profit of \$821 79. Subscriptions of active and honorary members paid in during the current year, amount to \$1,550, which, with a donation of \$20, make up the total of gross receipts \$3,319 78. This sum has been disposed of as follows: for books, periodicals, binding, &c. \$880 78; all other expenses, including those of the lectures; \$1587 78—making a total expenditure of \$2,468 56; leaving an unexpended balance of \$857 22, of which the sum of \$500 was appropriated by vote of the board to the support of the lectures of the present season, which, should they not require it, will, it is hoped, be retained for the exigencies of this branch of our enterprise; this sum has accordingly been deposited in the hands of Messrs. ALEXANDER BROWN & SONS, to be called for when needed. The remaining sum of \$357 22 has been passed to the credit of the new account.

“The department of lectures your board considers as of the first importance among the objects of the institution, as the above reservation renders evident. The brilliant success of the course of the last winter went far beyond the most sanguine expectation, as having been instituted less with the hope or intention of realizing profit, than with the desire of rendering a service to the members of our society and the public, which we

felt it in our power to perform, nor with this end kept constantly in view, could so fortunate a result be always anticipated. The lectures of the present season having been commenced at an earlier period than the last, we have had the pleasure during the present week of witnessing their auspicious commencement. With the miscellaneous character presented they must continue to be characterized until the process of fixing public taste in behalf of this mode of instruction is at an end, when graver labors may succeed.

"It was anticipated at the period of the last report, that some of the lectures which followed during that winter, would have touched upon matters germane to the objects of the association, but from the improbability of their interesting the larger portion of our audiences, the design was not carried out.

"No species of instruction can be found to combine so much and so varied gratification; and in a community like ours, more natural in feeling and more accessible to outward impressions than most others, we bespeak for them an interest which, if they are judiciously managed, they cannot fail to excite.

"The privilege of honorary membership by election, was conferred by the board upon all the lecturers of the past season—for whose ready compliance, particularly that of the venerable statesman whose lecture opened the course, we owe, as will ever be gratefully acknowledged, an accession of means and influence that have gone far to speed our enterprise on in its career of usefulness.

"By a clause in the new constitution, this privilege was formally created, although its evident fitness to occasions when in the opinion of the board some tribute of the kind seemed due, caused it to be previously conferred. The first of its recipients, one to whom, in common with our sister associations, we owe a debt of obligation, as the founder of the class in the establishment of the *MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION* of New York, and who has already manifested a warm interest in our success, was the zealous philanthropist *WILLIAM WOOD, Esq.*, of Canandaigua, to whose efforts, made more than a fourth of a century since, time still fails not to garner in a rich harvest of good, cheering his declining years. Of this grateful offering, we too claim to contribute some share. To our late President, *J. M. HARRIS, Esq.*, who has rendered the association such efficient service, the same tribute has been awarded; as also to *FREEMAN HUNT, Esq.*, of the *Merchants' Magazine*, as a token of the estimation in which we hold that valuable publication under his direction, which is rendering such important service to the mercantile community.

"A new opportunity for improvement will be offered our members, in the institution of classes—a scheme found to be of infinite service to our sister association of New York. A sufficient number of names having been obtained, three or four classes in the French language will be forthwith put into operation. As occasion may exist, classes in other languages, or in departments of commercial education, will no doubt follow, until that proud position we hope for may be gained; when, as more than 'guide, philosopher, and friend,' to the young merchant, our association shall afford him an education, as well as facilities for a commercial life, which may be to him a source of future usefulness, honor, and prosperity therein. Already has it elevated itself at home, to the dignity of a household word; yet, besides this merit, which is no mean one to the thinking man, he will discover others yet unnoticed, which will afford him additional evidence of the benefit of societies, in which the zeal, the activity, and the talents of the young man, are enlisted for his own benefit. In connection with a cause which appeals to him for support, and is espoused by him with all the ardor incident to his time of life, his mind is directed to the beneficent character of the objects he is compassing; thus, while he reaps the advantage of the fellowship, and finds in it occasion for a justly approving conscience, society, which might once have appealed to him in vain, now enjoys the happiest results from his exertions.

"Before closing this report, we would call the more particular attention of members, to that clause of the constitution requiring a formal resignation for the recognisance of the board, the neglect of which in some cases has entailed no little trouble. If on leaving the city, or otherwise quitting his connection with the association, he shall omit to comply with this requisition, or to pay such dues as may be outstanding against him, he will still be held responsible as a member, and the board possesses at present no authority to dismiss the claim.

"It may be proper also to mention, that the charter adopted at the last general meeting of the association, will be presented to the legislature at the approaching session. In the mean time, the constitution, rules and regulations, adopted at the same time, will be printed for the use of members.

“ The general view of the progress we have been making during the present year, will sufficiently convince you, fellow-members, that the similar rapid advances of the first were not premature. Like the goddess at whose shrine we are here votaries, we have leaped into existence with an abruptness which has startled ourselves. The enviable position we have gained, we should continue to maintain with moderation, sufficiently independent to be just, as well as generous, to all around us, but carefully avoiding such errors of personal feeling as would interrupt that *unity* in sentiment and action which should mark the deportment of members of such an association as this.

“ Thus while we consult only the single spirit of the objects before us, we shall not only preserve ourselves from a poison that would gradually infect every element of our prosperity, but erect an impassable barrier against encroachments of a malicious or designing character; and provided all we profess be sincere, and our course still prove without reproach, we shall continue, as we have done, to gain the confidence and good wishes of the community.

“ It will be well for our members, if they shall be guided through life by desires as honorable, and impulses as pure, as those which direct their steps hither, when evening releases them from the toils and anxieties of business.

“ And if the opportunities which the association offers, for the useful employment of their leisure, be wisely and skilfully applied, the time, we think, is not far distant when our history will show that the truest prophets of the future destiny of our association, have been those who have the most highly rated the amount of its beneficial influence in the cause of moral and intellectual advancement.”

METHOD OF COMPUTING INTEREST.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine :

DEAR SIR—As the subject of computing interest is now before your readers, I beg to offer the following as a ready method of obtaining 7 per cent, 365 days to the year :

Example 1.

Required the interest on \$587 for 182 days, 587	
	528 3 .. Product of principal X .9
	10 566 last product by .02
	11,25 866 interest 100 days,
	9,00 6928 the above interest by $\frac{1}{8}$ or .8
	22 51732 the same by $\frac{1}{8}$ or .02
Interest required	<u>\$20,49 07612</u>

Example 2.

Required the interest on \$587 for 183 days, 587	
	528 3
	10 56
	11,25 86
	9,00 64
	33 75
Interest required,	<u>20,60 25</u>

Proof.

Interest \$587, 182 days, Ex. 1.	20.49	587
“ “ 183 “ “ 2.	20.60	7
“ “ 365 “ “	<u>41.09</u>	One year, 7 per cent, <u>41.09</u>

In Ex. 1, all the decimal parts have been retained, but two places to the right of the line are sufficient, as in Ex. 2.

The basis of the above computation is as follows : The interest of \$100 for 100 days is 1.918, therefore if we multiply the principal (\$587) by 1.918 we have the interest of that sum for 100 days, viz. \$11.25 ; but the multiplication of four places is tedious, and

on examination we find the work can be abridged. 1st. The product by 1 is \$587, which we multiply by 9, and as 9 is a factor of 18, we multiply the last product by 2, taking care to place them as $\frac{2}{9}$ of $\frac{9}{18}$. Hence, having an easy method for finding 100 days' interest on any amount, we can of course take any other number decimally; thus, if 36 days, we multiply by 3 and 6, extending the units of each product to its proper place, either as tenths or hundredths. Hence, one hundred days is, on this account, obviously preferable to 60 or any other number.

[The method of throwing out the decimal places to the right is not new, but as it conveys a more definite idea of the nature of those fractions, and is in many cases a means of abridging the operation, I think it deserves the preference in teaching. If pupils commence this way, they will never abandon it.

The abridgment obtained by the factors in the multiplier is worthy the notice of those who dislike long sums in multiplication; it is seldom used, because it requires some practice to avoid committing errors.]

PRACTICAL RULE.

To find the interest on any number of dollars for 100 days at 7 per cent (365 days) per annum.

1st. Set down the amount of principal in dollars to the left of the vertical line.

2d. Multiply by 9, and set down the units of the product one place to the right.

3d. Multiply the last product by 2, and set down the units of the product on the third place from the line. The sum of the three lines is the interest required, all on the left of the line being cents.

There is, however, an error in the above method of computation of $\frac{2}{9}$ of a cent for every \$1,000 of principal. To keep this error out of the cents, it is therefore necessary to deduct this fraction, thus:

5864 for 100 days,	5864
	5277 6.
	105 55.
	<hr/> 11.247 15.
Error of 5 times .19	95
True interest, 100 days,	<hr/> <hr/> 112.46 20

It will frequently happen that this error can be thrown out by cancelling from the right of the line. This correction keeps the error less than one cent, until the principal exceeds half a million dollars.

With respect to the use of universal multipliers or divisors, may I venture a word of dissent from your ingenious contributor to the last month's number, so far as relates to his absolute denunciation of all such modes of computing 7 per cent. I trust the above is at least one example of their utility; and furthermore, I may add, that I have already prepared a table of multipliers, in which the error is always kept below a cent, and as the same table shows at a glance the number of days between any two dates within 365 days, together with a universal multiplier for 7 per cent interest, I am not without hope of bringing them into favor.

With respect to the computation of 6 per cent interest for 360 days, I would suggest the following as a practical method, as it will obviate the necessity of taxing the mind for the various combinations of aliquot parts, which, however useful as intellectual discipline, are opposed to the simplicity we aim at for practical calculations, viz. to give not only the shortest process, but the one requiring the least scientific attainments and the least mental labor.

Required the interest of \$558
for 37 days,

558	÷ 6	
93		Interest 10 days
186		" 20 "
65	1	" 7 " = 7 × 93 set down as $\frac{7}{1}$
3,44	1	" 37

60 being the $\frac{1}{6}$ of 360, the interest for 60 days must be $\frac{1}{6}$ of 6 per cent, which is 1 per cent. Hence we have the interest of any sum for sixty days, by calling dollars cents, that being 1 per cent.

The interest then of \$558 for 60 days is \$5.58, which we divide by 6 to obtain the interest for 10 days. By multiplying the 10 days' interest by 2 we obtain 20 days', and multiplying the 10 days' interest by 7, placing units to the right, we obtain $\frac{7}{1}$ or 7 days'; adding together the several parts, we obtain the answer required.

When the given number of days is a factor of 60, we have only to divide by the other factor; thus, for 20 we divide by 3, and so on.

Or, if we perceive the number of days to be a multiple of 60, we may multiply by the other factor; thus for 180 days, multiply the principal by 3; but in all other cases, as a general rule, divide the principal by 6, and then the decimal computation is incomparably the simplest, and in most cases much the shortest.

I have been more particular in the explanation of some points than will be requisite for many of your readers, but in extenuation I must plead that I merely chose the safer side to err.

New York, March 10, 1842.

THOMAS JONES.

SISAL HEMP.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:

It is perhaps not generally known that this article is the fibre of the aloe leaf. There are numerous species of the plant, which are all natives of a tropical climate, and specimens of several may be seen at Thorburn's and other botanical gardens; but the kind from which this hemp is produced, is peculiar to only a few soils. It grows spontaneously in the north part of Yucatan, and is perennial. Its abundance is such, and the inhabitants so little disposed to agricultural pursuits, that very little attention has yet been paid to its cultivation, which if it were properly done, the same number of plants might probably be made to produce double the quantity they now yield. An attempt was made some years ago, by Dr. —, who was for some years a resident in Yucatan, to introduce its cultivation into Florida, and a grant of land was obtained from congress for that purpose, but the writer is not aware at present what has been the result of the experiment. It is gathered and dressed principally by the native Indians, and carried to market at Merida, a considerable city about forty miles in the interior, for which Sisal is the seaport; and hence the name here given to this kind of hemp, which signifies no more than the place of export. So little mechanical skill is possessed, either by the Mexicans or Indians, that no mode of dressing it has yet been invented, except by hand. The lower and longest leaves are first cut, and the remainder permitted to grow; in this way many crops are gathered from the stocks of the same plant. The leaves are three or four feet in length, and of the breadth and thickness of the hand, and their pulp of that peculiar quality that it will not rot in water until the fibre rots with it; if exposed to the air, it dries very hard, and adheres to the fibre so closely that they cannot be separated. They are therefore taken by the Indians in their green state, a single leaf at a time, and being laid over a rest, the pulp is rubbed off with a blunt-edged wood or iron knife, much as leather is curried. A single leaf produces four or five ounces of

fibre, and in this way a man can only dress twenty or thirty pounds in a day. The labor is rendered still more irksome by the juice of the pulp poisoning the hands, particularly when working in the sun; and being poorly provided with shade, the Indians often work in the night. The writer was once engaged in commerce with the Mexicans, and at that time a wealthy gentleman residing at Merida, since deceased, offered a large sum for the invention of a machine for dressing the hemp; and a quantity of the aloe leaves were sent out here for experiment. A machine that would dress a thousand pounds in a day, with the labor of a mule and one or two men, would produce any man an independent fortune in a year or two; but the difficulty of bringing the thing to the attention of machinists arises from the absence of the material to experiment upon. Any young man who can carry an inventive genius along with him, and is disposed to take a trip, may perhaps make his fortune by going out to Sisal, from whence he may proceed on the back of a mule, or the shoulders of Indians, to Merida, forty miles, where he can attend to his business, and make himself comfortable in a very healthy climate. And if he would like to satisfy himself of some of the marvels which Mr. Stephens has told us in his travels, he may take an Indian guide, and in a day's journey reach the ruins of Uxmal.

P.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

The following survey of a dangerous reef of rocks off the point of Kahoolawa, by Capt. Wilkes, of the United States Exploring Expedition, was done at the request of H. S. J. M. Kamehameha 3d., and by him communicated to the editor of the *Polynesian*:

It is rather less than two miles from the shore—has two fathoms on it at low water; is composed of a few rocks, all in about the circumference of 200 feet; its position is ascertained to be in the following bearings, viz: Lahaina High Shoal, N. by compass. Western extreme of Kahoolawa, N. 39, 39 E.; South eastern extreme, S. 63, 11 E.; South Point Lanai, (bluff,) N. 39, 45 W.; Peak on Lanai, N. 19, 27 W.

I do not consider it at all dangerous. The following are directions for avoiding it.

Ships passing through the channel between Hawaii and Maui, intending to anchor in Lahaina roads, must steer so as to pass the southern point of Kahoolawa at least three miles distant, and steer for the Peak of Lanai, until the High School at Lahaina bears to the eastward of NNE, when they may haul in and steer directly for it. It will be much to their advantage to steer further over toward Lanai, as they will be favored by the sea-breeze which usually sets in from the southward between 9 and 10 o'clock, A. M. and will enable them to gain the anchorage sooner than they can by hauling immediately into the bay, besides they avoid the calms and heavy squalls to which a near approach to the shore renders them liable when the trade wind is blowing strong.

The best place to anchor in (at Lahaina) is abreast the King's Flag Staff (in front of the palace) just within range of the Western Hummock and the East Point of Molokai, in 17 fathoms water.

LIGHTHOUSES.

The estimated cost of supplying the lighthouses of the Union with oil, glasses, wicks, &c., for the year 1842, is \$116,735. They embrace 2,652 lamps. Repairs and refitting lighthouses, \$125,357. The salaries of 236 keepers of lighthouses, seventeen of them being charged with two lights each, and one with three, \$94,038. Thirty-eight keepers of floating lights, \$15,800. Seamen's wages, &c., \$67,176. Cleaning and repairing, \$25,499. Annual examinations, \$4,000. Superintendents' commissions, \$11,215. Total, \$459,822.

PORTER'S PATENT BURNING FLUID.

THIS excellent article of light is, we notice, very generally adopted by masters of vessels for cabin, binnacle, and signal lights. It is used on board Collins & Co.'s Liverpool line, and in fact all the principal foreign packet-ships sailing from the port of New York. We have seen a card signed by a large number of highly respectable ship-masters, who give their "decided testimonials in favor of its superior cleanliness, beauty, and convenience over every other kind of light hitherto invented." It sheds a clear and brilliant flame, without the least trouble of trimming, snuffing, consuming the wick, or diminution during the longest night, and is perfectly free from any disagreeable odor. It is therefore recommended to the favorable notice and use of all ship-masters, owners, agents, and consignees of vessels of every description, as the best and most economical light in use. It is manufactured and sold in any quantity by W. H. Starr, 67 Beekman-street, New York.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The Life of Lorenzo de Medici*. By William Roscoe. From the Sixth London Edition, corrected. In 2 vols. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1842.

A perfect American copy of this well-known English classic has long been a desideratum; and we thank these enterprising publishers that they have now supplied the want by an edition above all praise. Fairer type, better paper, and greater accuracy or taste we could not have asked: one of the most delightful books in the language, a wonder of literature, in that its author seems to have known the lore of Italy better than Italians themselves, now comes to us in a more convenient, yet more worthy form than ever before. We trust that hard times will not deprive these generous providers of a rich remuneration. No library can be complete without this splendid chapter of the revival of literature: certainly no merchant can afford to be destitute of the only memoir of the brightest ornament his profession ever had. The period itself, the beginning of the sixteenth century, is one of the most interesting and eventful in all history: he that has not studied it, mused upon and drunk in its spirit, can pretend to know nothing of modern history.

2.—*The Effinghams—or Home as I found it*. By the Author of the Victim of Chancery. New York.

We have not before noticed any of the works of this author; but we take pleasure in saying, that in his "Victim of Chancery," he has given us a very interesting and instructive story. Though he does not wish to be shown up as an author, and therefore maintains, except to a narrow circle of friends, a strict incognito, we may, with propriety, remark that he is a New York merchant, once in that enviable standing which success in business always confers; and that, having passed from that condition, through all the stages of misfortune, to that which compels him to take up his pen for employment, he is well versed in the scenes he has undertaken to describe. They are, indeed, matters not so much of observation as experience, and he may well use, in regard to them, the language of an ancient narrator,

"All which I saw, and part of which I was."

We trust that this work will not only be read with interest, but accomplish something in the work of reform, where all must allow it is generally needed.

The last work of this author—the Effinghams—will be read with pleasure by all those who wish to see society in this country vindicated against the attack of foreigners and others, who have aspersed it. The book is well and ably written, and the interest is maintained throughout. The author has touched upon more "Americanisms" than can be found in any other book of the kind, and he handles them with a perfect and impartial regard for truth, and with great force and humor. The book should be generally read for its honest, candid American character, and its sound and wholesome views of our national and sectional peculiarities.

- 3.—*Chapters on Church Yards.* By CAROLINE SOUTNEY, authoress of *Solitary Hours*, &c. New York: Wiley & Putman. 1842.

This volume, the reappearance of Caroline Bowles in the world of literature she had graced as a poet, is not what its name would imply. After some pretty essaying, (in the fashion of the *Sketch Book*, though not so touchingly simple in language, and occasionally overladen with words, yet witty and pathetic by turns,) are given some as touching and profitable stories from common village life as were ever written. The 'Broken Heart' would probably be the greatest favorite. But 'Andrew Cleaves' has hardly been surpassed in truth, interest, and moral purpose. We wish the large weeklies could send it through the land; it would make a valuable Sunday School volume. 'No one can read it but with thrilling interest—no one can ponder upon it and not feel the danger of undue severity in education, the folly of casting away a child's confidence by cruelly punishing its first frailties, and the madness of bringing up a boy as ignorant of the world as if he had not been born—to say nothing of the absurdity of religious parents committing their lambs to the sorest temptation for the sake of gratifying afterward a merely worldly ambition. Andrew Cleaves is a tale of power, pathos, and rare utility. Again and again we solicit to it the attention of the public.

- 4.—*Travels in Europe and the East.* Embracing observations made during a tour through Great Britain, Ireland, France, Belgium, Holland, Prussia, Saxony, Bohemia, Austria, Bavaria, Switzerland, Lombardy, Tuscany, The Papal States, The Neapolitan Dominions, Malta, The Islands of the Archipelago, Greece, Egypt, Asia Minor, Turkey, Moldavia, Wallachia, and Hungary; in the years 1834, '35, '36, '37, '38, '39, '40, and '41. By VALENTINE MOTT, M. D., President of the Medical Faculty of the University of New York, and Professor of Surgery, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 452. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1842.

In this volume Dr. Mott has given the result of his observations in his passage through the several countries mentioned upon its titlepage. The field of his description was rich and wide, and he appears to have availed himself of all the prominent subjects of interest, both in persons and things, that were within the circle of his view. After having witnessed the condition of affairs in those countries, he returns impressed with the superiority of our own country, and says, "I come back, if possible, a still better American than when I left, and from the comparison I have made of the condition of the population of other countries, feel still more deeply impressed with the conviction, that our own republican form of government is infinitely and immeasurably preferable to that of any other that has ever existed."

- 5.—*On Regimen and Longevity: comprising Alimentaria, National Dietetic Usages, and the Influence of Civilization on Health and the Duration of Life.* By JOHN BELL, M. D. 12 mo. pp. 420. Philadelphia: Haswell & Johnson. 1842.

The subjects embraced in this valuable treatise are of general and paramount interest to all classes in community; and appear to be admirably adapted to popular instruction in the philosophy of Regimen and Longevity. Although addressed chiefly to the general reader, it will doubtless prove a valuable addition to the library of the medical student. The free introduction of statistical calculations into this volume will give the reader a clearer idea of the alimentary importance and commercial value of certain substances used for food than common notices, or even any assertion of their extraordinary dietetic value would convey.

- 6.—*On Codification, or the Systematizing of the Law.* By J. LOUIS TELLKAMPF. Jur. Utr. Dr. of Gottingen Univ., and Professor in Union College, New York.

An article bearing the above title is to be found in the October and January numbers of the "American Jurist." In this article there are many important suggestions on the subject of the systematizing of the law, which we would recommend to the attention of those people who are interested in such a work. The author briefly exposes the basis on which all law is founded, and then considers the present state of the municipal law. After answering the objections usually urged against codification, he proposes a standing committee, for the purpose of systematizing the present laws, and for arranging and harmonizing with them the laws which shall, from time to time, be enacted. The whole work is written in a brief and concise manner, evincing a philosophic spirit.

- 7.—*The Vigil of Faith, and other Poems.* By C. F. HOFFMAN, author of *Greydaer, &c.* 1 vol. 12mo. New York: S. Coleman.

We could hardly believe it possible that any thing so beautiful as this, in dress and form, actually belonged to New York. We challenge the world to surpass it in general effect. A few errors of the most venial kind excepted, errors perhaps of the author's pen, nothing more chaste and tasteful could be imagined. The Indian tale is quite pretty. The tale of one who doomed the murderer of his bride to perpetual slavery, and, instead of dispatching him to the shades, there to persecute his victim with an hateful love, confined him to the most degrading dependence, is gracefully told through some 800 octo-syllabic lines. The other poems, too, are quite graceful, and no doubt must have given exceeding pleasure to the circle of the author's friends. But Mr. H. is not born to shine as a poet. Descriptive prose appears to us his forte; and the community will better appreciate and reward his other works than the one now before us, which no mechanical execution can long save from oblivion.

- 8.—*Poems, Narrative and Lyrical.* By WILLIAM MOTHERWELL. Boston: William D. Ticknor.

It is truly refreshing, in this day of small things in the poetical way, to take up a volume of genuine, heart-stirring poetry. Motherwell is no mere versifier. His poetry is the vivid expression of beautiful thought and deep feelings. His strains have also one merit which is exceedingly rare in the present day, and that is variety of expression and tone, as well as of versification. He has no mannerism—nothing which, in all his pieces, indicates a common parentage. His feelings are the natural result of the nature and characteristics of his subject, and not of some one peculiarity of his own temperament. The touching pathos of Jenny Morrison has no marks of a common origin with the stern wooing of Jarl Ergill. The volume is justly styled a literary treasure, and as such will no doubt find high favor in the eyes of our poetry-making (if not poetical) public.

- 9.—*A Dictionary of Science, Literature, and Art: Comprising the History, Description, and Scientific Principles of every Branch of Human Knowledge: with the Derivation and Definition of all the terms in General Use. Illustrated by engravings on wood.* Edited by W. T. BRANDE, F. R. S. L. and E., of Her Majesty's Mint, &c., assisted by JOSEPH CAUVIN, Esq.

The publishers state in their prospectus that the proposed work "will contain the definition, derivation, and explanation, of the various terms in science, art, and literature, that occur in reading or in conversation. Great pains have been taken to make these definitions and explanations correct, clear, and precise. Short abstracts are also given of the principles of the most popular and important departments of Science, Literature, and Art, with notices of their rise, progress, and present state. No statement is ever made as to any unusual or doubtful matter, without referring to the authority on which it rests; and when subjects of general interest and importance are noticed, the reader is referred to the works relating to them, which embody the best and most authentic information. Not only, therefore, will those who consult this work have a guarantee for its authenticity, but they will learn the sources to which they may resort with the greatest advantage, should they wish to make farther inquiries."

- 10.—*A Dictionary of Arts, Manufactures, and Mines; containing a clear exposition of their principles and practice.* By ANDREW URE, M. D., F. R. S. London, &c. 8vo. New York: Le Roy Sunderland. 1842.

This valuable work is now in the course of republication in this country in semi-monthly parts, twenty-one of which will form a volume of about 1400 octavo pages. We have examined the whole work, and consider it a most valuable addition to our adopted literature. The intimate connection of the arts, manufactures, and mineral productions with the commerce of a country, render it hardly less valuable to the merchant than to the manufacturer, or man of science. The English edition costs \$11, the American will be afforded at \$5, without alteration or abridgment.

- 11.—*The New World.* JAMES ALDRICH, Esq. has become associated with Park Benjamin, Esq., in the editorial management of the *New World*. The well-known abilities and taste of Mr. Aldrich cannot fail to make this arrangement highly satisfactory to the readers of that popular journal.

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

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ART. I.—COMMERCIAL VOYAGES AND DISCOVERIES.—No. I.

INTRODUCTION.

WE hardly realize, in the present day, the immense debt that civilization owes to the spirit of commercial enterprise. While we acknowledge the high claims of commerce to the consideration of mankind, we look upon her rather as the offspring and attendant of progressive humanity than, as she is, the parent of much of our refinement; the chief aid of religion, the instructor of man in the arts of life, and the sole means by which he has attained a knowledge of the world which he inhabits. To arrive at a proper estimate of the influence which the spirit of commerce has had in moulding the fortunes of the world to their present condition, we must look back a few hundred years to what may be considered comparatively the infancy of refinement and science. Now almost every department of human knowledge has attained a degree of strength which renders it independent of any adventitious support. Truth is eagerly pursued through every branch of physical or moral science for its own sake, and the pursuit would be continued though many of the most important interests of society were totally destroyed. But a few centuries since the case was very different. Then society lay bound in the chains of bigotry and prejudice. Custom, that foe to all improvement, reigned supreme, restraining curiosity, cramping men's energies, and bowing their minds in willing submission to the social and political, as well as religious, superstitions of what are justly called the dark ages. It needed some power to arouse society from this mental lethargy, or rather to divert into new and wider channels the intelligence which was frittering itself away in the circles of imperious routine. This power was found in the desire of gain, developing itself in the form of commercial enterprise. It came with irresistible force, scattering before it the prejudices of the age, piercing, as with the beams of the morning, the thick darkness of ignorance, dazzling men's minds with its brilliant discoveries, and stirring up from their profoundest depths the moral and intellectual energies of our nature. Expansion of intellect was the natural result of the expansion of commerce. The barriers of knowledge were broken down, and a stimulus given to thought, which made the fifteenth century as well the era of the regeneration of the old

world as of the discovery of the new. The Azores, Madeira, the Canaries, the Cape de Verd Islands, the coast of Guinea, the West Indies, and last, but not least, the passage to the East Indies round the Cape of Good Hope, successively broke upon the dazzled imaginations of Europe with a force that no prejudice, no ignorance, no superstition could withstand.

And all this was accomplished by the single spirit of commercial enterprise. In those days there were no exclusively exploring squadrons, no scientific missions, no voyages purely for the purpose of discovery. Trade was the grand object. The merchant went ahead and pointed out the path to the soldier and the priest. Without his guidance it is possible that until the present day the sword of the one had not waved, or the cross of the other had not been planted, in one half of the now christianized world. The voyage of Columbus is no exception. He himself was no mere merchant: he had other and nobler objects, better befitting the enthusiastic aspirations of his lofty genius; but the expedition which he conducted to such a glorious issue had for its foundation the desire to rival the Venetians in the trade of that mysterious Cathay from whence vast floods of wealth were flowing into the city of the isles.

In addition to the importance attached to many trading voyages, from the magnificent results of which they were directly or indirectly productive, they are frequently intensely interesting from the circumstances under which they were prosecuted, the characters of the voyagers, and the adventures through which they passed. Unfortunately, they have multiplied to such an extent, and fill such voluminous collections, that very few have time or opportunity to become, in the slightest degree, acquainted with them. A vast number too, it must be confessed, are so meager in their details, or incorrect and mendacious in their narratives, or prosy and stupid in their style, that they would not repay the general reader the labor of perusal. There are enough, however, if they were properly selected and condensed, to make several most entertaining and instructive volumes; and in the absence of such a work, we have thought that it would not prove uninteresting to the readers of this magazine to have offered to them such brief abstracts of the principal voyages as our limits will permit. In doing so, we shall of course condense the narratives as much as possible; and shall, where it is convenient or useful, accompany the remarks of the voyager with geographical, historical, and commercial observations, illustrative of the present condition of the countries described. It is fortunate for our purpose that several voluminous collections of the earlier voyages and travels were formerly made, by which many manuscripts were published, which would otherwise never have seen the light, and from which many translations of curious foreign narratives were made. Almost every language of Europe has these collections; as for instance, Ramusio in Italian, Thevenot in French. But no nation is richer in this particular than the English. The principal and best known are Hackluyt's collection, in three volumes, folio, the second edition of which was published in 1599; Purchas, in four volumes folio, exclusive of his Pilgrimage, published in 1625; Harris, in two volumes, 1705; Churchill's six large folios, and Astley's four large quartos, published in 1745. Numerous other collections, both large and small, exist, but we are not aware of any very comprehensive one of a later date. In fact, within the last hundred years, the number of such works has increased to such an extent as to render the publication of them in any saleable sized work perfectly impossible. They issue

from the press in one continuous stream, pass for a moment under the public eye, and then are forgotten. The travels of yesterday, if not antiquated in the taste of the public, are at least pushed from the reading world by their rivals of to-day; and their resurrection in the good old folio and quarto dresses is a process that none of our modern publishers would be very likely to assist.

CHAPTER I.

First attempt of Don Henry to reach the coast of Guinea.—Discovery of Madeira by Gonsalvo Zarco.—Passage of the famous Cape Bojadores by Gilienas.—Progress of the Portuguese trade and discovery along the coasts of Guinea to the Cape of Good Hope.

We shall commence our proposed digest with a brief summary of the early voyages of the Portuguese to the coast of Africa, which began in the first part of the fifteenth century, and were prosecuted with much perseverance for several years without having attracted the attention or excited the emulation of neighboring nations; but which at length resulted in the brilliant discovery of the passage to India round the Cape of Good Hope. Of the state and course of trade with the east, which was almost exclusively in the hands of the Venetians and Genoese previous to this event, it is needless here to speak, as the subject has been fully treated in an able and interesting article in the last number of this magazine, entitled, "Mediterranean Commerce with India;" suffice it to say, that the discoveries of the Portuguese created an entire revolution in commerce, and may be justly regarded as equal to, at least in their immediate effects, the more famous exploits of their Spanish rivals.

Full accounts of the early voyages of the Portuguese are to be found in a number of voluminous writers. The principal of these are, Juan de Barros, an abridgment of whose large work was made by Maffi, Fernan Lopez de Castanneda and Manoel de Faria y Sousa. The "History of the Discovery and Conquest of the East Indies" of Castanneda, published in 1555, has reached a number of editions in Portugal, and has been translated into French and English. The *Asia Portuguesa* of Sousa, first published in three large folios in 1666, at Lisbon, has also been frequently republished, and has been translated into Italian, French, and English. It is to these that all collectors of voyages are chiefly indebted for their materials for the Portuguese matter of their works; and it is abstracts from them that we shall follow in the following summary of the Portuguese efforts previous to the passage of the Cape.

The chief originator and encourager of voyages to the Atlantic coast of Africa was the gallant Infant Don Henry, son of John I. In the year 1415 he accompanied his father in an expedition against the Moors of Morocco. The Portuguese force consisted of thirty-three ships of war, and one hundred and twenty transports, carrying fifty thousand men. Leaving Lagos bay they directed their course for the straits, and arrived on the 21st of August before Ceuta, a town (now belonging to Spain) situated directly opposite to Gibraltar, and at the foot of one of the celebrated Pillars of Hercules, in ancient days named Mount Abyla, now better known by the vulgar title of Apes' Hill. The greatest preparations had been made by the Moorish governor, Sala Bensala, for a vigorous defence, but the attack was made with such fury and gallantry by the young prince, that the Moors were compelled to give way and retire to the castle.

The king ordered the castle to be assaulted, and Bensala finding it untenable, retired at night and left it to the Portuguese. Thus, after much bloodshed, the town was taken, which, well fortified towards the land side, has ever since resisted the repeated attempts of the kings of Morocco and Fas. The Infant Don Henry, who at this time was but twenty-one years of age, was of an enthusiastic and inquiring spirit. His imagination soon became thoroughly excited by the glowing Moorish accounts of the countries beyond the great desert, and of the rich trade that was carried on between the cities of Morocco and the great mart of Negroland—the famous Timbuctoo. It is also probable that he acquired something of a definite idea of the shape of the African coast and of the islands which lie near it, as it is asserted that he consulted with many Moors who had crossed the desert and visited the Assenhaji, the Jalofs, and other nations of Guinea.

Returning to Portugal, the Infant resolved to put on foot an expedition that should solve the geographical questions that interested him, and perhaps open a new and lucrative trade with the inhabitants of those mysterious regions. Fixing his residence at the town of Ternacable, upon the sea coast, in the province of Algarve, he gave orders for fitting out two ships. The first attempts did not, however, amount to much. They reached only as far as Cape Bojador, a point which may be considered the southern extremity of the coast of Suse, a province of Morocco, on the northern commencement of the Saharah proper. The Spaniards had already reached this Cape, but beyond it navigation was supposed to be impossible. Alarmed by the current which sets with considerable force round this celebrated point, the first Portuguese adventurers, like the Spaniards, gave up the attempt in despair; but the prince, far from being discouraged by the ill success of his efforts, in 1418 sent Juan Gonzales Zarco and Tristan Vaz Tiexiera, with orders to stand well out to sea, beyond the reach of the formidable current, and to boldly dare the imaginary dangers of this *ne plus ultra* of Atlantic navigation.

Before reaching the coast of Barbary, they encountered a severe storm, which drove them in a westerly and southerly direction until they made the little island of *Puerto Santo*, or Holy Haven, lying but a short distance from Madeira. Upon their return to Portugal, the prince was not a little pleased with the discovery, and immediately despatched Gonzales and Tristan back again to the island, accompanied by Bartholomew Perestrello, with three ships loaded with seeds and live-stock.

In another voyage, in the year 1419, Gonzales discovered, or rather re-discovered the island of Madeira, which, as the story goes, was first visited by an Englishman of the name of Machin. Francesco Alcaforado, who accompanied Gonzales, in his history of the voyage, an abstract of which is published in Astley's collection, gives the following romantic, but probably true, account of the Englishman's adventure.

In the reign of King Edward the Third of England, one Robert Machin, a young gentleman of genius and courage, falling in love with a young lady of a noble family, called Ann d'Arfet, and, making his addresses to her, soon won her affections from all his rivals. This, her parents observing, and not brooking the thoughts of any inferior alliance, in order to effectually prevent it, procured a warrant from the king, and kept Robert in custody until they got the young lady married to a certain nobleman, (whose name Machin would never discover,) who, as soon as the ceremony was over, took the young bride with him down to his seat at Bristol.

Thus, all being secured, our knight easily obtains his discharge ; but stung with a high sense of the injury, and at the same time goaded on by love, he sat his wits to work, and engaging some of his friends to assist him, he carried them down after the new-married couple. The first thing to be done was to get one of them into the family, who, being taken in as groom, had an opportunity of acquainting the lady with her lover's design, and the measures he proposed to take, to all of which she yielded a ready compliance. Accordingly, when all things were prepared, she took a ride on the day appointed, under pretence of airing, (which, to prevent suspicion, she had used some time before,) attended only by her groom, who brought her to the channel side, where she was handed into a boat and carried on board a ship that lay ready for the purpose.

As soon as Machin had got his treasure on board, he, with his associates, immediately set sail to get out of the reach of pursuit, intending for France ; but being ignorant of the sea, and the wind blowing a hard gale, they missed their port, and the next morning saw themselves lost in the middle of the ocean. In this miserable condition they were tossed about at the mercy of the waves, wandering without a pilot for thirteen days, at the end of which they chanced by break of day to descry something very near them that looked like land, which, as the sun rose, they could distinctly discern to be such, being covered with trees to which they were entire strangers. They were not the less surprised with several unknown kinds of birds that came off the land and perched upon the masts and rigging without the least signs of fear.

As soon as they could get out their long-boat, some of them went to search the coast, who returned with a good report of the place, though uninhabited ; whereupon our adventurer carried his mistress ashore, leaving the rest to take care of the ship. The country upon their landing appeared very agreeably diversified with hills and valleys ; the first thick shaded with a variety of unknown trees, and the latter enriched with cooling rivulets of fresh water. And here several wild beasts came about them, but without offering any violence. Thus encouraged, they marched further into the land, and presently came to an opening like a roundish meadow, encircled with a border of laurels and watered by a small rivulet, which in a bed of fine sand run down from the mountains through it. Here likewise upon an eminence they found a most beautiful tree, whose shade inviting them, they concluded to take up their abode under it for a while at least, and accordingly with boughs built themselves huts. In this place they passed their time very agreeably, making further discoveries of the country, and admiring its strange productions. But their happiness was of short duration, for three days after it blew a storm at northeast, which driving the ship from her anchor, threw her upon the coast of Morocco, where all the company were taken prisoners by the Moors and sent to prison.

Next morning those on land missing the ship concluded she had foundered. This new calamity drove them all to despair, and proved so afflicting to the lady that she did not long survive it. The ill success at the first setting out had sunk her spirits, and she continually fed her grief by sad presages of the enterprise ending in some tragical catastrophe ; but the shock of this last disaster struck her dumb, so that she never spoke more till she expired, which happened three days afterward. This loss being too great for our lover to survive, he died himself in five days, not-

withstanding all his companions could do to comfort him, begging them at his death to place his body in the same grave with hers, which they had made at the foot of an altar erected under that beautiful lofty tree before mentioned. They afterward set up a large wooden cross upon it, and near that an inscription drawn up by Robert himself, which contained a succinct account of this whole adventure, and concluded with a prayer to the Christians, if any should ever come there to settle, to build a church in that place to Jesus the Saviour.

Thus deprived of their leader, the rest proposed to depart, and fitting out the boat set sail, intending for England; but happening to take the same route the others had been forced upon, arrived, unluckily for them, at the same coast, and accordingly met with the same fate, and were carried to the same prison.

An objection has been found to the truth of this story, in the impossibility of Don Henry becoming acquainted with the existence of this island in the way that Alcoforado states. He says that, confined in the jails of Morocco with Machin's companions, was one John de Morales, an experienced sailor, who from them became acquainted with the details of Machin's adventure. That having been ransomed with other Spanish prisoners, the vessel in which he sailed was made a prize by Gonsalvo, who was returning from his voyage to Porto Santo, which we have mentioned. There being at that time some difficulty between the Spanish and Portuguese governments, Morales was carried before Don Henry, and informed him of what he had heard from the companions. The difficulty in this case is, that Machin's adventure must have happened during the reign of Edward the Third, and between the years 1327 and 1378, and that Morales must have been from forty-two to nearly one hundred years a prisoner. Galvano in his chronicles of Castile states that it was in 1344, which would make Morales seventy-six years a prisoner. But we cannot see that this objection is of any force against the authenticity of Alcoforado's statement. It is very possible for him to have been mistaken as to the personal communion of Morales with the companions of Machin. The information might have easily been preserved as a prison tradition. There is no other reason to doubt the authenticity of the narrative, and it is a little curious how it could ever have been doubted from so small a circumstance, when there is abundance of confirmatory evidence, but which it is unnecessary here to particularize.

The voyage for the discovery of the island having been resolved upon, Gonsalvo and Zarco set sail for Porto Santo. From the Portuguese whom they had left there two years before, they heard horrible stories of a thick darkness that hung on the sea to the northeast, and extended up to the heavens. It was stated never to diminish, and to be frequently accompanied with loud and strange noises. By some it was thought to be the mouth of hell; others, more learned or more bold, judged it to be the ancient island of Cipango, over which forever hung a mysterious veil, and which was the abode of Christians who had formerly been compelled to fly from the tyranny of the Moors.

After a good deal of hesitation and debate, it was resolved by Gonsalvo, who communicated his intention to no one but the courageous and sensible Spaniard Morales, who declared that the cloud was a sure indication of the land the English had told him of, and that it arose from the moisture occasioned by the thick woods which covered it, to set sail. He did so early

in the morning, and crowded all sail in the direction of the cloud, very much to the alarm of his timid and superstitious crew. Soon they heard a great roaring, which so frightened them that they insisted upon turning back; but Gonsalvo made them a speech, which, according to the Portuguese chronicler, was composed of such solid arguments that their fears were allayed. Presently the cloud became less dense, and they could perceive something through it. Their fears were again renewed by the appearance of vast giants, which fortunately turned out to be nothing but rocks on the shore. Soon, to their great joy, land was distinctly discovered. Rounding a small point, a vista up the mountain into the country opened upon their view. At this spot Morales and Ruez Paes were sent to reconnoitre the coast, and observing a small bay, like that described by the English, they landed, and soon found the cross and the tombs of the lovers. Gonsalvo took possession in the names of King John and the Prince Don Henry, of the island, which from its being so thickly covered with wood, was called *Madeira*. The name has remained, but the peculiarity which gave rise to it, soon ceased to exist; for the first Portuguese settlers commencing to clear it by fire, the whole island was soon in flames, which continued to burn for seven years, until the flourishing forests were totally destroyed.

Encouraged by the discovery of these two islands, which being uninhabited, were not at first of much mercantile value, except in the article of seal-skins, with which they abounded, Don Henry resolved to prosecute with new ardor, and despite the opposition arising from the fears and prejudices of the age, his long-cherished and more promising designs upon the coast of Guinea.

In 1432 the much-dreaded obstacle of Cape Bojador was surmounted by Gilianes, who was despatched by the prince in a single bark. This fortunate event, which the chroniclers of the day say was looked upon as fully equal to any of the labors of Hercules, at once overturned the general belief that the cape was impassable, and that beyond it, it was intended by Providence that man should not venture. It began to be supposed that discoveries beyond it were possible; and the prince obtained from the Pope, Martin V., a grant of all lands discovered beyond this cape to the East Indies, with full absolution for the souls of all who should perish in the undertaking.

Gilianes, in 1434, accompanied by Alonzo Baldaya in another vessel, passed thirty-two leagues beyond the cape, and landing, discovered tracks of men and cattle. They named the coast *Angra de Ruyvos*, from the quantity of fish. An appropriate name, if we may judge from the quantities of very fine fish with which the whole of the desert coast abounds at the present day, and which gives employment to a great many fishing vessels from the Canaries.* In 1435, twelve leagues further were reached, and a landing made by two or three Portuguese, who, mounted upon horses, directed their course into the interior. They had not proceeded far,

* We have sometimes wondered whether the enterprise of our fishermen might not be profitably extended as far as the coast of the desert. The fish are undoubtedly much more plenty than on our own banks, and of a finer kind. The most important are a splendid species of cod, and the *tassart*, a very large kind of mackerel. Many places could, it is probable, be found upon the uninhabited coast for drying fish, which could be easily defended against all the Arabs of the desert.

when they came across a kind of cave containing a party of sixteen natives, armed with javelins; who flying, were pursued by the Portuguese and several of them wounded, as well as one Portuguese. This, observe the Portuguese writers, was the first drop of that ocean of blood which flowed in the track of Christian discovery.

At this point were seen immense numbers of seals, and in 1440 Antonio Gonzales was sent for a cargo of their skins. Landing one night, he advanced fifteen or sixteen miles into the country, and captured a man who was driving a camel; he also encountered a company of forty Moors with one woman, whom he seized after having put the men to flight. Another ship from Portugal, under the command of Nuno Tristan, having arrived, they went ashore again, and attacking a party of natives, killed three and captured seven. Gonzales returned to Portugal with part of the slaves, but Tristan first coasted on as far as Cape Blanco, nearly three hundred miles further, and then returned.

Two years after, Gonzales returned, bringing with him several of the natives he had carried off, for whose ransom he received ten black slaves and a quantity of gold-dust. This was the first commencement of the gold trade that afterward proved so profitable. From this circumstance the Portuguese gave the name of the Rio del Oro, or River of Gold, to the place on the coast where the exchange took place. It lies almost directly under the tropic of Cancer. As may be supposed, the spirit of trade was now fully aroused. The gold-dust opened the eyes of the most prejudiced, and countries that a short time before were believed to be the unapproachable habitations of giants and wild beasts, were now thought to have been intended solely by Providence for the gratification of Christian cupidity.

Several voyages were now made, which our limits will not permit us to describe. The profits that began to attend the trade induced several Portuguese to form a company for the prosecution of further discoveries. They set out with six ships, of which Gilianes was commodore, but the expedition does not seem to have done much, except attack some small islands in the gulf of Arguin, and the capture of some two hundred prisoners. In a voyage made by Gonzalo de Cintra, in 1445, to the islands of Arguin, his vessel got aground and was attacked by two hundred Moors. He was killed, with seven of his crew. In 1446 several voyages were made with tolerable success. Among the others, Denis Fernandez, who must have had some Irish blood in him, to judge from the name, coasted along by the mouth of the Senegal and discovered the celebrated Cape Verd, the *Assinarium Promontorium* of the Romans, directly off which are the islands to which it gives its name.

In this way the Portuguese advanced, fighting, trading, cheating, and lying their way towards the great discovery they were destined to achieve. Gold, ostrich feathers, ivory, and slaves were the principal objects of trade, and when the first could not be obtained, there never was any hesitation in seizing upon the last by either force or fraud.

Nuno Tristan, who seems to have been one of the most adventurous traders, was the first to pass Cape Verd. He went on beyond the Gambia until he came to the Rio Grand, a river which falls into the ocean in latitude 11 deg. north. Going up this river in his boat, he was surrounded by boats full of blacks, who attacked him with poisoned arrows, and killed him, with most of his men. Four men only were left to bring the ship home, and being ignorant of navigation, they wandered about for several

months before reaching port. Alvaro Fernandez went forty leagues further than Tristan, to the district that now constitutes the English province of Sierra Leone. About this time a voyage was made by Gilianes, who first passed Cape Bojador, with ten caravels, but it was not very successful. The traders on both sides had become so suspicious from repeated experience of the treachery of either, that the trade, although exceeding profitable in general, was frequently entirely suspended. Force was substituted for fair dealing by either party, whenever it was thought to be advantageous; and it was not unfrequently the case that the Portuguese would amicably trade with the inhabitants of a town in the daytime, and after getting all they could from them, land at night, kill some and make the rest slaves. It is not to be wondered at if the natives soon learned to be as faithless as their visitors.

The fame of the Portuguese enterprise began to be noised abroad throughout Europe, and many were attracted to Lisbon to see the curious things which were brought by the voyagers. A lion, brought by Gil Homen, is said to have been much gazed at. Among the rest, according to De Faria y Sousa, there came a very gallant gentleman from the court of the king of Denmark, named Ballarte. He obtained permission, at the request of his sovereign, of Don Henry to accompany Fernando Alonzo, who was despatched to the king of Cape de Verd. The natives appeared in arms to prevent their landing, but the Portuguese, representing that they came with peaceable intentions, a communication was opened, and Ballarte landed. Desirous of seeing a live elephant, a black undertook to guide him, but he had not gone far when he was treacherously set upon and with his company slain, and the ambassador was compelled to return without effecting his mission.

The Azores, or Western Islands, were discovered some time before this, by Gonzalo Vello. It is asserted as an undoubted fact by several Portuguese writers, that in the small island of Corvo, the most westerly isle, there was found an equestrian statue, with a cloak, but without a hat, the left hand upon the horse's mane and the right pointing to the west. There was an inscription on the rock underneath, which could not be made out; the whole was afterward supposed to refer to America. Leave was granted to Don Henry to plant these islands. Vines were sent there by him, which in after times were to flourish upon the acclivities of Pico, and to furnish the sapient wine-drinkers of the United States with many hundreds of pipes of *genuine Madeira*.

In 1462 was discovered all of the Cape de Verd islands, ten in number. The next year the great Don Henry died, much to the sorrow of the whole nation. He is represented to have been well made, with a majestic countenance, brave, generous, and profoundly skilled in mathematics and all the science of the age. His death did not interrupt the prosecution of the African explorations, the trade having become too profitable to require any other incentive to the spirit of commercial enterprise.

In 1471 the equator was passed. The grain coast, (so named from the Portuguese having obtained there a quantity of cochineal, known in the Italian markets by the name of *grana del paradiso*,) ivory coast, gold coast, and slave coast, were reached in succession. Extending their voyages from day to day, the islands of the Gulf of Benin were visited, and the shores of Loango, Congo, and Angola. The king of Portugal now took the title of lord of Guinea; the donation of all lands was again confirmed

by the pope, and an exclusive privilege granted to make discoveries from the west to the east. The Portuguese had now several forts established at various points upon the coast, and were vigorously prosecuting a lucrative trade, the nature of which will be more clearly understood from an abstract of the voyages of Cada Mosto, which we will give previous to entering upon the more detailed accounts of the celebrated voyages of Vasco de Gama and his successors in the Indian seas.

CHAPTER II.

Voyages of Aluisa da Cada Mosto and Pedro de Cintra.

THE voyages of Cada Mosto, written by himself, are the first full and detailed narratives of the early expeditions to the coast of Africa, to be met with in the old collections of travels. They are contained in Grinæus' latin work, and in Ramusio, from whence they were translated into Astley's collection. Cada Mosto was a Genoese, but performed his voyages under the auspices of Don Henry. He also wrote the narrative of the voyage of Pedro de Cintra, a Portuguese, who visited Guinea shortly after Mosto had returned. These voyages are interesting, not only as being the earliest, but as containing as much or more of accurate information respecting the coast he visited, and its inhabitants, than can be found in any later writer. Unfortunately, our limits enable us to give but a very brief abstract.

In 1454, Cada Mosto, a young and gallant Italian, embarked at Venice on board a galley for Flanders, to which country he had previously made a commercial voyage to some profit. Arrived as far as Cape Vincent, the galley was detained for several days by contrary winds. Don Henry, who was at the time residing, for the sake of his studies, in his country-seat, near the cape, hearing of their arrival, sent on board a gentleman of his suit, accompanied by the Venetian consul. From them they heard the stories of the prince's discoveries, and were shown samples of Madeira sugar, dragon's blood, and other commodities produced in the islands belonging to the prince. The curiosity of Cada Mosto was also thoroughly excited by accounts of the Portuguese adventures upon the coast of Africa. In reply to his inquiries, he was assured that the trade yielded a profit of from seven hundred to a thousand per cent, and that the prince was very willing to grant permission to foreigners to enter the trade upon condition that the person undertaking the voyage should be at the expense of fitting out a vessel, in which case the prince would receive one fourth of the return cargo; or the prince would be at the expense of the vessel, and the merchant of the freight, and the profits equally divided between the two. He was also told that the prince would particularly like to make such an arrangement with a Venetian, because he thought that spices, and other products of the East Indies, might be found in those parts, and he knew that the Venetians were well acquainted with such articles. Cada Mosto landed, and the prince in person confirmed these representations, and gave such a pressing invitation that Cada Mosto resolved to accept. He accordingly took out his effects from the galleys and left them to pursue their way to the low countries.

After waiting some time at Cape St. Vincent, where he was handsomely entertained by the prince, he was directed to fit out a caravel of ninety tons. Vincent Diaz was chosen master, and on the twenty-second of March

they set sail, and directed their course for the island of Madeira. On the twenty-fifth they made Porto Santo, and on the twenty-eighth they reached Madeira. The author's account of this island, and of the Canaries, several of which he touched at after leaving Madeira, we must omit.

A few days after leaving the Canaries they came within sight of Cape Blanco. Round to the south of this Cape lies the Bay of Arguin, which extends in about fifty miles, and contains three small islands, which have been several times mentioned in the previous chapter.

According to Mosto an ordinance had been passed that no vessels should enter this bay to trade with the Arabs, except certain privileged persons mentioned in the ordinance, who had permission to establish factories and trading-houses upon the island of Arguin, and to sell cloths, tapestry, cotton stuffs, and other goods for negroes and gold. Before this the Portuguese vessels used to come into the bay by night and carry off for slaves the inhabitants of the fishermen's villages.

He mentions a place called Hoden, situated six days' journey back of the cape. This place is not walled, but much frequented by the caravans coming from Timbucto. This is now known to be a large oasis, but its precise position and features are not more accurately known than they were in Mosto's time. It is the residence of the Trasarts, one of the three tribes who have now possession of the extensive gum forests between Cape Blanco and the Senegal. Six or eight days' journey from Hoden lies a place called Teggazza, where quantities of rock-salt are dug up and conveyed by caravans to Timbuctoo, and other negro markets. In answer to Cada Mosto's inquiries as to the disposal of this salt, he was told the following story, which, however improbable, is curious, from the fact that it still continues to be affirmed, with some variations as to names and places, by the Moorish merchants of Barbary. The salt having reached Timbuctoo, is carried on thirty days' journey beyond to the kingdom of Melli. There a portion of it is used for the supply of the inhabitants. The remainder is carried a long way in pieces by men, on their heads, every piece being as much as a man can well bear. These porters, who are employed in great number to carry the salt from want of camels or other beasts of burden, have a long fork in each hand, which, when tired, they fix in the ground and rest their load on. Thus they proceed until they come to a certain water, which Cada Mosto very sagely contends to be fresh, although he has no certain information on that head, from the fact of the demand for salt brought from such a distance. Arrived at the water side, the proprietors of the salt place their shares in heaps together in a row, every one setting a mark on his own. This done, they retire half a day's journey. Then the negroes they want to deal with, who will not be seen or spoken to, and seem to be inhabitants of some islands, come in large boats, and having viewed the salt, lay a sum of gold on every heap, and then withdraw. When they are gone, the negroes who own the salt return, and if the quantity of gold pleases them, they take it and leave the salt; if not, they leave both, and withdraw again. The buyers again come on, and the heaps they find without gold they carry with them, and either advance more gold to the other parcels or leave the salt. In this manner they trade, without seeing or speaking to one another, which has been a very ancient custom among them.

It is very possible that this story, however absurd it may seem to be, had then, and still may have, a good foundation in fact. Cada Mosto says

that he had it from numberless Arabs and Azanaghi merchants, as well as other persons worthy of credit; it is believed in the present day by the Moors, and we have good authority for believing that the same custom has existed in other nations since the earliest days. Pliny alludes to the custom, in noticing the trade with the Seres, (the Chinese,) and Pomponius Mela, the geographer, quoted in the "Commercial intercourse with China," forming the first number of Hunt's Library of Commerce, expressly says: "The Seres are a nation celebrated for their justice, and have become known to us by their commerce, for they leave their merchandise in the desert, and then retire until the merchants they deal with have left a price or barter for the amount, which, upon their departure, the Seres return and take." This, adds the author of the "Commercial Intercourse," agrees precisely with what is known to take place in the land trade of the Chinese in the present day.

We should not do full justice to Cada Mosto's narrative if we did not give his description of these invisible and taciturn salt-eaters. It seems that in reply to his inquiries upon the subject, he was informed that there once lived an emperor of Melli, whose curiosity overcame his prudence, and he resolved to have a sight of his singular customers. He directed an ambuscade to be laid at the place of trade, by which four of the invisibles were caught. The waylaying party thinking that one would answer their purpose, set three of them at liberty. But they were disappointed in their expectations of the fourth, who very obstinately refused either to speak or eat, and at the end of four days he died. "This cross accident was much regretted by the negroes of Melli, because their lord was thereby prevented from obtaining their ends; and the captors having brought the emperor an account of the man's death, he received it with great displeasure, and asked of what stature they were. He was answered that they were exceedingly black, well shaped, and a span taller than themselves. That their under lip was thicker than a man's fist, and hung down upon their breasts. That it was very red, and that something like blood dropped down from it, but that their upper lip was small as other people. That the form of their lips exposed to view their gums and teeth, which were larger than their own; that they had great teeth in each corner of their mouths. That their eyes were large and black. In short, that they made a terrible figure, blood dropping from their gums as well as teeth." For three years after this, these people came not after their salt. At length the trade was renewed, but no succeeding emperor has been disposed to risk another interruption, by repeating the experiment."

Doubling Cape Blanco, Cada Mosto proceeded to the mouth of the Senegal, which he found like most of the African rivers which empty into the Atlantic, much obstructed by variable sand-bars. At the present time, the bar will not admit vessels drawing more than nine or ten feet of water, and that only under favorable circumstances as to wind and tide. This river, which was formerly confounded, rises in the country of the Fouta Jallow, and runs a tortuous course of about eight hundred miles. At its mouth is the island of Senegal or St. Louis, the seat of the French government of the province. Formerly this river was a great place to obtain slaves; it is now commercially interesting only from the gum which its banks produce. The forests of acacia, which stretch up in the direction of the desert, are visited by the Moors in December, who encamp in them about six weeks, collecting the drops which exude from the cracks in the

bark. They then proceed in a tumultuous crowd to a desert plain on the north of the Senegal, between Poder and St. Louis, where they meet the French merchants, and the great gum fair commences. In some years these forests have produced over 1,400,000 pounds.

Cada Mosto having passed the mouth of the Senegal, coasted along the shore for eight hundred miles, until he came to the country governed by King Budomel. As soon as he had anchored at a place called the Palm of Budomel, an open roadstead, he sent his interpreter, who was a negro, to apprise the king, who had the reputation among the Portuguese who had visited him before, of being a clever fellow, of his arrival, and of the goods he had on board. Among the rest, he had several Spanish horses, much esteemed by the negroes, as well as cloths of various kinds and Moorish wrought silks.

Upon the invitation of Budomel, he landed and was received with great civility. Budomel purchased seven of the horses, with their furniture, and some other goods, and invited Cada Mosto to go with him to his capital, twenty-five miles in the interior, to receive his pay, which was to be in slaves. Trusting to his honor, and desirous of seeing the country, Cada Mosto went, and was most liberally entertained for twenty-eight days. Budomel took him into the mosques, made him many presents, and afforded him all opportunities for observations upon the manners and customs of the inhabitants, which Cada Mosto seems fully to have improved, but which our space compels us to omit.

Stormy weather coming on, Cada Mosto found it impossible to reach his vessel, and he sent an order by a negro swimmer, who undertook to deliver it on board, for the caravel to proceed back to the mouth of the Senegal, while he made his way up the coast by land. In this journey the enterprising Mosto was not idle, and his journal contains much interesting information, mingled with perhaps not more of inaccuracy and exaggeration than is common in the narratives of more modern travellers.

Having joined his ship, our author resolved to double Cape Verde, and try his fortunes further south. He set sail, and a day or two after discovered two ships, which he found to be, one a vessel belonging to a Genoese gentleman, Antoniotto Uso di Mare, and the other belonging to Don Henry, and that they were both bound upon an expedition round the Cape de Verde. Joining company, they proceeded together, and soon came in sight of the cape, which derives its name from the luxuriant vegetation with which it is covered.

Running along this coast, they came to anchor a few miles from land, and cast lots to see which of them should send an interpreter on shore. It fell to the turn of the Genoese, who despatched his boat with orders to the men not to touch the shore but when they landed the interpreter, who was charged to inform himself concerning the condition and government of the country, and whether there were any gold or other articles to be procured. The interpreter landed, but after a few minutes' conversation with the natives, he was furiously attacked and killed, without those in the boat being able to render any assistance. Cada Mosto and his companions justly concluding that those who could commit such a barbarity upon one of their own complexion, would treat them with still more cruelty, weighed anchor and stood along the coast, which improved in beauty as they advanced, until they came to the mouth of a large river, which he calls the

Gambra—the true native name of the country through which it flows, and which has since been corrupted to Gambia.

This river, which is very wide and deep, permitting the ascension of ships nearly two hundred miles, has only a short course of six hundred miles. There was formerly a very flourishing trade here. The English have several factories, which in some years have required merchandise to the amount of nearly a million of pounds. This trade having been very much depressed, has, within the last few years, been gradually increasing until it has again become of considerable importance.* St. Mary's Island is the principal English settlement. Bathurst, situated on the east side of the island, contains about three thousand inhabitants, exclusive of the garrison.

Being come to this river, which Cada Mosto judges to be five or six miles wide at its mouth, he and his companions concluded that they had arrived at the famous country of Gambra, and would at once make their fortunes by stumbling upon heaps of gold and other precious things. The small caravel was sent ahead with boats to sound the river, and the next morning the other two also weighed anchor and stood up the stream. By the time they had advanced four miles up they perceived themselves followed by a number of almadias, or boats full of negroes. They tacked about and stood down for them, taking all precautions to guard against their poisoned arrows. Cada Mosto's ship first reached the negroes, who numbered about a hundred and fifty, in fifteen boats. They ceased to row, raised their oars, and looked upon the caravel with wonder. Thus they continued until they saw the other vessels bearing down upon them, when they dropped their oars and let fly a volley of arrows. The ships in re-

* In 1828, the total value of imports in the Gambia amounted to £50,269. The exports £60,302. In 1836, the imports were £114,772, and the exports £147,732.

Exports from the River Gambia, in 1825, 1830, and 1833.

Articles.	1825	1830	1833
Pure wax.....	181 tons	244½	175½
Ivory	696 teeth	14,625 lbs.	29,240
Gold	922 oz.	500	1,139
Tortoise shell	1 shell	2 boxes	255 lbs.
Gum	30 bags	52 cwt.	275 tons
Hides.....	58,125	76,471	76,900
Rice.....	6 tons	164	288
Cotton.....	1,490
African teak.....	1,801 logs	502 loads	660
Hardwood.....	48 loads
Corn, measure of sixty gallons.....	266	1,711	3,635
Camwood.....	40	54	74½
Palm oil.....	3,443 galls.	1,819
Ox horns.....	292	225	6,780
Ginger.....	126 lbs.	680
Horses.....	9	15
Bullocks.....	207	13
Pagnes, or country cloths.....	1,149 no.	1,264
Country baskets.....	700 no.	220
Arrowroot.....	4,200 lbs.
Hemp	4
Orchilla.....	1,475

turn discharged four pieces of cannon, which for a time considerably astonished the natives, who were much surprised to see the stones fired from the cannon drop in the water near them. Recovering from their stupefaction, they renewed the attack with great fury, which they kept up until a number of them were killed.

After this battle, in which the negroes fought as if they had a presentiment of the suffering and crime of which the Gambia was to be the scene, the commanders came to a resolution to proceed about a hundred miles up the river, in hopes of meeting with a better disposed people. "But the sailors, who were impatient to return home, not caring to run any further dangers, unanimously and loudly opposed their determination, declaring they would consent to no such thing, and that they had done enough already for this voyage. Whereupon, knowing that seamen are a headstrong and obstinate people, and to prevent scandal, they came into their measures, and next day sailed for Cape de Verde, on their return to Spain."

The next year, 1456, our author resolved to make another voyage, in conjunction with the Genoese De Mare. Don Henry encouraged the design, and sent with them a caravel of his own. Leaving Largos Bay they steered for the Canaries, passed them with a favorable wind, and came in sight of Cape Blanco. Standing well out from land, the following night they encountered a heavy storm, which compelled them to lay to for two nights and three days. On the third day they discovered land, to the great joy and surprise of every one. Having ordered two men into the maintop, they made it out to be two large islands, which they were at once satisfied were unknown in Europe. The sea becoming calm, our author sent some men to examine the land, who could find no trace of inhabitants, but reported three other islands in sight. This was the first time that the Cape de Verde Islands had been visited, an honor which is generally, upon the authority of Faria y Sousa, erroneously attributed to Antonio de Noli, who saw them in 1462. Cada Mosto named one Bona Vista, and the other St. Jago, from which last he obtained a supply of water, fine tortoises, and a quantity of very white and pure salt, and then set sail for the main coast. Doubling Cape Verde they passed forward to the Gambia, into which they entered without any opposition from the natives, and cast anchor at an island about ten miles from its mouth, which he called St. Andrew's Isle, now known as St. James.

Proceeding still further up the river, the negroes followed, but at a respectful distance, until at last, by hailing them and showing them trinkets, they were induced to approach, and at length one of them came on board. He informed the voyagers that the country was tributary to the king of Melli, but that there were many inferior lords who dwelt near the river, and that he would conduct them to one named Battimausa, who would be glad to negotiate and trade with them. They accordingly proceeded up the river about forty miles, and sent the negro to announce their arrival. As soon as the prince received the news he sent a deputation of negroes to the vessel, with whom the adventurers entered into a treaty of friendship, and bartered some of their goods for slaves and gold. They were, however, very much disappointed in their expectations, as the negroes had as high an idea of the value of the gold as the Portuguese themselves.

They continued here eleven days, during which time the caravels were resorted to by numbers of negroes from both sides of the river. They

brought for sale gold rings, cotton, and cotton-yarn. Some pieces were all white ; others striped with blue and white ; and another sort with red, blue and white stripes, very well wrought. They likewise brought civet and civet cat-skins, monkeys, and small baboons of various sorts, which being very plenty were sold cheap. At the end of eleven days they began to suffer from the fever that still continues to be the curse of the coast, and it was resolved to put to sea. The short time had, however, not been unimproved by our author, who records his observations upon the customs and religion of the natives—the climate—the enormous vegetable productions—the elephant—the method of hunting it, and preparing it for the table, &c., too much in detail for our limited space.

Departing from Battimausa's country they soon got out of the river, stocked with commodities sufficient to encourage them to proceed further. They proceeded along the coast, passing the mouths of several rivers, until they came to a very large one, (the Rio Grand) which at first appeared to be a gulf and was judged to be about twenty miles across. Resolved to gain some intelligence of the country, they came to anchor. Next morning two large almadias came off and rowed towards the ships ; one was as long as the caravel, with thirty hands in her, the other had sixteen. Seeing them approach with great eagerness, the Portuguese stood to their arms. As they drew nearer they hoisted a white handkerchief fixed to the end of an oar, as a signal of peace. The Portuguese answered in the same manner, and the negroes came alongside, and evinced the greatest curiosity when they found their visitors to be whites. The interpreters spoke to them, but could not understand a word of their language, which was a great mortification. They bought a few gold rings, having agreed upon the price by signs ; but finding themselves in a country where their interpreters were of no use, and concluding for the same reason that it would be to no purpose to proceed further, they determined to return, so they steered away for Christendom, where they safely arrived.

These two voyages of Cada Mosto were shortly followed by others, performed by the Portuguese. Among the rest there were in particular two caravels sent by the king of Portugal, after the death of Don Henry, under the command of Captain Piedro de Cintra. A former clerk of Cada Mosto accompanied the expedition, from whose account Mosto drew up a narrative of the voyage, beginning from the Rio Grand.

Coasting from the mouth of this river they discovered a cape which they called Verga, and soon after another, to which they gave the name of Sagres. The inhabitants of this coast were noticed to be very fond of ornaments, having their ears pierced with holes all around, in which they wore various sorts of gold rings. The nose was likewise pierced, both in men and women, who wore a gold ring in it.

Having passed Cape Sagres they ran along to the mouth of Rio de San Vincent, and passing it, came to Cape Liedo. From this cape there runs a large mountain for about fifty miles along the coast. To this mountain they gave the name of Sierra Leone, "on account of the roaring thunder heard from the top, which is always buried in clouds."

Passing Cape Roxo they came to a river, to which they gave the name of the River of Palms ; and beyond that about the Rio de Fumi, so named from the clouds of smoke that they saw along the coast, an appearance which probably arose from the same cause as the torrents of fire seen by

Hanno, the Carthaginian navigator—the custom of burning the forests of gigantic grass.

Further on the caravels came to anchor, and two or three almadias came off. The negroes were all naked, and were armed with sharp pointed sticks like darts, and bows and arrows. The interpreters were unable to hold any conversation with them. Three of them having ventured on board, the Portuguese let two go free, but detained the other. After this, the captain having concluded to go no further, they returned to Portugal, where the negro, being presented to the king, was examined by several of his color, and at last by a black female, who belonged to a citizen of Lisbon. This woman was able to converse with him in his language. Whatever information he communicated to the king, it was kept a profound secret, except that there were unicorns in his country, and after keeping him for several months, he was loaded with presents and sent back to his native place.

ART. II.—THE TRADE AND MANUFACTURES OF BELGIUM.*

BELGIUM is well calculated for a manufacturing country. She possesses water power, and is well supplied with coal, iron, limestone, zinc, and lead ores. Living is cheap, and she is blessed with an industrious and steady population. She has one drawback, however, in the want of skill of her workmen in some branches of manufactures, particularly in the production of iron, and in the manufacture of machinery. This want she supplies by the employment of English artisans. The difference in the wages paid to English and Belgians affords a fair criterion of their relative skill. Many iron-masters pay English workmen 12½ francs a day, which is about \$2 50, while Belgians in the same workshop receive but 8 francs, or \$1 60, and the former are considered the cheapest hands. They are said to be able to produce more and better iron from the same materials. A skilful Englishman will do seven heats in twelve hours, while a Belgian in the same time will only do five. If 200 killogrames of pig-iron are put into a furnace, an English puddler will draw out 180 of puddled iron, while the Belgian will obtain but from 150 to 165 killogrames. In the manufacture of machinery, steam engines, &c., the greater skill and experience of English workmen also renders them pre-eminent. So it is with the self-acting mule, which in Belgium, when attended by natives, will not yield over two thirds as much work as in Manchester. It requires a greater number of men to work them, they make more waste, and owing to their want of sufficient dexterity, the spindles have to be run at much less speed. It is said that Belgian operatives never improve. They do tolerably well when alongside of Englishmen, but as soon as they are left alone they invariably relapse into their old clumsy nonchalant habits.

This want of mechanical skill can, however, by no means be considered a decided bar to the progress in manufactures of the country. English

* Extracts from manuscript notes on Belgium, politely furnished for publication in the *Merchants' Magazine*, by Alexander Jones, Esq.

operatives can always be had in abundance, and the compensating advantages of cheap living and patient industry, will, in the end, insure manufacturing success. The principal seats of manufactures are Liege, Brussels, Ghent, Malines, Tirlemont, and Verviers.

Iron Trade.—The iron ore of Belgium is principally the yellow oxid, and resembles in appearance gravel or sand. It is found in large quantities near Namur, and in the vicinity of the river Meuse, and between Liege and Mons. It is obtained generally at a depth of from thirty to forty feet beneath the surface, and is drawn up by manual labor or horse-power. The stratification in which it is found is very different from that in the English mines, and no regular pit-work, as in Staffordshire, is necessary.

These ores, when first got out, are so mixed with dirt as to require much washing, and, after all, are very poor; the richest is that found near Spa: They yield a good, strong, white-grained iron, but the proportion of pure iron is very small. Only about 32 per cent can be obtained from them, but if taken as they come from the pit, their yield is not more than 18 per cent.

It has been found profitable in some instances to mix the red oxid of iron (hematite) from England with the Belgian ores. It has been shipped from Lancashire to Charleroi, and delivered at the furnaces at a cost of three pounds per ton. This ore, which is also found in Staffordshire and Cornwall, is compact, and of a deep red color, and yields about 60 per cent of pure iron. In working, it requires no washing, and but one process or fluxing to reduce it. It is also sent in considerable quantities to the furnaces at Merthyr, Tydvil, in South Wales, and to different furnaces in England and Scotland. The transportation of that which goes to Belgium costs about 22 shillings, or \$5 per ton.

It is not, however, the richest ore, or that which yields the greatest proportion of pure iron, that is always the most profitable to work. The percentage of iron to the whole ore may be very large, as in some of our American ores, but owing to their chemical composition, it may be much more expensive and difficult to reduce them than some of those which yield a much less proportion of the pure metal.

Most of the furnaces in this country are situated at a distance of twenty miles or more from the coal pits, and the coke has to be brought at considerable expense. These coal pits are generally from twelve to eighteen hundred feet deep. Much water has to be raised from them, for which purpose large pumping engines are employed, most of them with cylinders 84 inches in diameter; a good size, but not equal to many used in England—one in particular, a blowing cylinder, at a blast furnace in South Wales, measuring 144 inches in diameter, with a stroke of nine feet.

A good deal of charcoal iron is made in Belgium, and is preferred for all purposes to that made with coke. In building locomotives for government, it is always contracted that the working parts shall be made of charcoal iron. This iron is chiefly produced near the Sambre, towards Charleroi and Denant. The charcoal comes principally from the neighborhood of Waterloo, in the forest of Soignes.

There are in this country fifty-eight blast furnaces upon the English system; only eighteen of which however are at present (1840) in full operation. The largest works are at Charleroi, where a great number of

English hands are employed. Each of these furnaces in full work would produce from ten to fifteen tons a day.

The iron of Belgium is produced at an expense of £1, or \$5 per ton more than it costs in Staffordshire. Cast-steel cannot be produced at all; several attempts have been made to manufacture it, but without success.

The duties upon iron are enormous;—upon English pig-iron £1 per ton; upon bar iron £6, or \$30 per ton; on sheet iron it is said to be about £12, or almost \$60 per ton. These duties are imposed without any regard to the quality of the imported iron, and are collected simply according to the weight. They are levied for the double purpose of revenue and protection. In this last particular they cannot be said to have produced any very brilliant effects. Though abundantly “protected,” the iron trade of Belgium cannot be cited as an instance of the beneficial influence of the system. The iron-masters, formerly a very powerful class, have, in despite of high duties, been losing their preponderance, and iron has to be imported from Sweden, Germany, England, and France.

Manufacture of machinery.—In Ghent, Liege, and a few other places, are manufactured nearly all kinds of machinery, of a quality very closely approximating the best of Manchester work. Above eight thousand hands are employed in the large establishments devoted to this branch of industry, without including the workmen in the service of a great many machine-makers who do business in a small way. Most of the machinery produced is designed for exportation to other parts of the continent, and to Egypt and Turkey, and it is said that some of it has been sent to the United States. A good deal goes to Spain, such as that for the manufacture of paper and woollen cloth. A considerable amount of silk machinery is made for home use.

The manufacture of machinery has been much forwarded by the facility with which joint-stock companies are formed, it requiring for that purpose merely the permission of the minister. This has however been attended with the disadvantage of overtrading; capital readily found investment in the stock of these companies, and the supply was increased beyond the just and lasting demand. A reaction to a great extent has been the necessary consequence.

The cost of manufacturing machinery in this country is considerably more than it is in England. The price of a mule spindle at Ghent, by the Phoenix company, is about 8s. 6d. sterling; the difference in cost in a mule jenny, in favor of Manchester, is about 22 per cent. In the latter place the price varies from about 6s. 6d. to 7s. per spindle. Mr. Withers states, in his evidence before a committee of the House of Commons upon the exportation of machinery, that the machinery of Belgium is about 15 per cent more expensive than the English. Steam engines are made as cheap, or cheaper, if we add to the English price the cost of transportation. An English engine of about 30 horse power, which was imported for a woollen manufactory at Verviers, cost, including transportation duty, &c., £600; considerably more than an engine of the same power would have cost at Liege. The English engine was however of much better workmanship than a corresponding one of Belgic manufacture.

Large works for the construction of locomotives exist in this country. The first establishment for this purpose was founded by Mr. Cockerill at Leraing; since then a large company has been organized at Brussels, called the “Renard Company,” expressly for this business. Engines from

these sources have been supplied to the railroad from Cologne to the frontiers of Prussia. At Leraing steam engines are constructed for boats on the Rhine, and also for Prussia and Holland. The engines of Belgium are constructed on what is termed Wolf's plan, which combines the principles of both high and low pressure. This kind of engine was invented in England; it has received various improvements, and is now extensively used in that country, and in Belgium and France. The Cornwall mines have large pumping engines at work in them, made upon the same principle, and in several small steamboats upon the Thames they are very successfully employed. The principal English manufacturers of them are Messrs. Hall, at Dartford.

Steam engine making has made but little progress in France; their marine engines are very inferior. Nineteen out of twenty steamboats have engines made in England, and have on board English engineers and stokers. Fawcett, Preston & Co., of Liverpool, have built under contract several large marine engines for French steamships of war. There must be a natural inaptitude for such kind of work, when a government possessing the resources, and using as much steam machinery as France, is compelled to go abroad for a supply. Throughout the whole continent the same inferiority is found to exist, although it cannot be denied that within a few years great progress has been made, particularly in Belgium, which has considerably outstripped its continental rivals. This inferiority is particularly striking in the manufacture of tools, which involves as a consequence an inferiority in other branches of industry in which good tools are a requisite. They seem to possess the power of making a spinning jenny, but not a good planing machine of iron or wood.

Very good files for watchmakers are made at Liege. Mr. Stubbs, however, of Warrington, Lancashire, still maintains his high reputation, not only in England but throughout the continent. I became acquainted in England with the present Mr. Stubbs, son of the founder of the house, who informed me that he sent large quantities of his files to the continent, and that he had been compelled to prosecute many parties in France for putting out imitations of his files, and stamping his name upon them. His files have for many years had a run in the markets of the United States which those of no other manufacturers have been able to obtain.

The duty on locomotive engines imported into Belgium, is from 6 to 8 per cent. Common steam engines, saw-mills, rolling-mills, &c., are admitted free. Steam boilers, however, bear a duty of £12 per ton. Machinery of all kinds is imported free, provided the importer shows it to be for his own use, and will also agree to exhibit it, and afford all explanations respecting it at all times to any person who may wish to examine it or take drawings of it. This condition, however, acts almost as a prohibition, as no manufacturer likes to have all the operations of his factory exposed to the public, to say nothing of the inconvenience and trouble of such continual inspection.

The principal continental establishments for making machinery, other than those of Belgium, are Zurich and Aix-la-Chapelle. From these places machinery is exported to a considerable extent to Italy and Spain. To Salerno, near which place is grown enough cotton for domestic use, is sent machinery for manufacturing it.

The principal places in France engaged in making machinery are, for the woollen manufacture, Arras, Rheims, Sedan, Elbeuf, and Paris; for

cotton, Lisle, Lille, Roulaix, Douai, Cambray, Alsace, and Rouen; for lace, Dunkirk, St. Quentin, Lyons, and Lisle.

Silk trade.—Not much is now doing in the silk business in Belgium. The Jaquard loom is in operation near Antwerp, where an old silk trade has existed for centuries; the principal articles manufactured were black silk cravats. The business has fallen off very much. Attempts have of late been made to revive it, but with what success remains to be seen.

The Jaquard loom is a modern invention, first discovered in France by the man whose name it bears, but which was afterward considerably improved in England. The French, and of course the Belgians, who resemble them so much in national character, are good at discovering principles, or originating machines, but they seem to fail in the practical application of their ideas to useful purposes. If they get hold of an important invention, however promising in its first inception, they neglect to carry it out to its ultimate perfection. Collier's wool-combing machine, like the Jaquard loom, is a case in point. This machine was first invented by a Frenchman at Arras; Collier, an Englishman, was upon a visit to Paris, and became acquainted with the inventor; he purchased an interest in the machine and took it to England, where it soon underwent important improvements. It was returned to France in its new dress, and is now universally used in that country and in Belgium. A great many other cases of precisely the same kind have occurred.

The hosiery trade is carried on principally at Tournay, Enghein, and near Brussels. It has recently suffered much from the competition of Saxony, and of Aberdeen, in Scotland, and Leicester and Nottingham, in England. In the finest kinds of goods the Belgians excel, but in the manufacture of heavy substantial articles the English are far superior to any part of the continent. The business is, however, at present in England at a low ebb.

The linen trade is in a rather more flourishing condition. For the prosecution of this business, a large amount of machinery has been, and continues to be imported from England, contrary to the laws of that country, which very unwisely prohibit the exportation of nearly all descriptions of machinery except tools, steam engines, and cotton machinery.

Flax is extensively cultivated in Belgium, but not enough is raised to supply the demand, and some has to be imported, and pays a small duty.

Cotton also pays a small duty. The manufacture of this article is very far from being in a flourishing condition, owing to various causes, one of which is the want of a regular export trade. There is no danger of any part of the continent ever becoming the rival of England in this branch of industry. It is estimated by the French manufacturers that, owing to the use of cheaper machinery and coals, superior workmen, and a better market for the purchase of the raw material, the difference in the cost of cotton yarn in favor of England is equal to 2d. per pound. The continental spinners have to use much finer cotton to produce the same numbers. The raw material is considerably cheaper at Manchester than in any part of France or Belgium. Liverpool, so near to Manchester, controls the cotton markets of Europe. It at all times affords the greatest variety of the raw material, from which buyers can make their selections; and we find that large quantities are there sold to continental houses for the use of their manufactories. If, in addition to this, we consider the cost of the necessary land carriage from the sea-board to the factories, most of which

are situated some distance in the interior, it may be fairly estimated that the continental spinner pays fully 1d. per pound more than his rival of Manchester.

The cost of machinery for the cotton business is also a great drawback. Mr. Ashton, in his examination before a committee of the House, states that he saw a cotton mill at Rouen which cost £12,000, the cost of which in England would have been but £9,000; the price of the mill in Belgium would have been about the same as in France. In England, he states, a first class mill, including fire-proof house, all complete, costs from 24s. to 25s. per spindle; in France a similar mill would cost 34s. to 35s. per spindle. This difference alone will preclude the possibility of rivaling England in this branch of manufacture; at any rate it will be many years before any thing like a competition can be established. They may make enough for their own use, but England and America must supply the world; these two have got too large a start in mechanical skill to be easily overtaken.

Making spindles for cotton spinning is a difficult art, especially mule spindles, which require to be very accurately ground, otherwise they will not run true; not one workman in a hundred can set a spindle unless he has had great practice. Among the workmen in the machine shop of the Phoenix company, at Ghent, it is found necessary to have at least one out of every twenty of them Englishmen.

At Verviers they have introduced into use the self-acting mule, manufactured by Sharp, Roberts & Co., of Manchester. Potter's self-acting mule is made by the Phoenix company, to whom the patent-right was disposed of by the inventor. Another self-acting mule, called Smitt & Orr's, now manufactured by Parr, Curtis & Madileng, successors to Dyer, in his card machine making establishment in Manchester, has found its way to the continent.

Dyer is one of the few Americans who have made a fortune in England, not by their own inventions, but by introducing those of others. He commenced the manufacture at Manchester of Whittemore's card machine, and he had also something to do with a number of other inventions, such as Perkins' method of engraving on steel. After making a fortune in England, he has established his sons in business in France, where they both build machinery and manufacture cotton goods. He has taken out patents in several governments of Europe for the tube throstle spindle and other inventions.

Wilkinson's reed machine may also be mentioned as an instance of a successful American invention. He is said to have been a poor man, of Providence, Rhode Island. By his invention he cleared over \$100,000 in England. It consists in a method of inserting slips of smooth iron in sleighs instead of corn reeds; the iron is found to answer better than reeds, and the whole process is very expeditiously performed by his machine, one of which will make a whole sleigh in from ten to fifteen minutes.

It is a lamentable fact, that in general inventors are not so successful, even when their inventions turn out in the end to be of the greatest practical value. It is almost always that some second or third party reaps the reward which should have gone to the ingenious but neglected inventor. We hear of associations for almost all kinds of purposes—for missionary, political, and professional purposes, for every possible form of charity—

for the suppression of almost every thing that is bad, and the encouragement of almost every thing that is good ; would it not be a good idea to get up an association for the purpose of aiding and encouraging poor inventors ? It is notorious that the patent laws of every government, including our own, are exceedingly imperfect, and afford very little protection to patentees. This must be the case with all patent laws which award pecuniary damages to the injured inventor ; the true remedy would be to make stealing or infringing a patent-right, a felony. It frequently happens in England, and may sometimes happen in this country, that a man without money or character is put forward by some one with capital, for the express purpose of stealing or infringing a patent-right ; suits for damages in such cases are a mere farce. Mr. A. M. Perkins in London informed the writer of a case in point which occurred to himself. It was the violation of his patent for heating houses by means of water in iron tubes. Mr. Perkins went to the man and remonstrated against the injustice of thus infringing a patent that had cost him so much trouble and expense, but to no effect. The infringer laughed at him and the law, and Perkins was compelled to compromise with him, and grant him a regular license to carry on the business.

The internal commerce of Belgium is facilitated by magnificent rivers, particularly the Meuse and the Scheldt, the latter being navigable as far as Cambray in France. There are also numerous canals. We can only mention the great northern canal, from Neuss, on the Rhine, (in Prussia,) by Venloo, on the Meuse, to Antwerp, and with which communicate, by means of the Scheldt, the Lievre and Bruges canals ; the Ostend and Dunkirk canals, reaching the sea at different points ; the Brussels canal ; and the Louvain canal. The railways, likewise, owing to the flatness of the country, have been introduced with a success unknown even in Britain. According to a law passed in 1834, it was provided that a system of railroad should be established in the kingdom which, having Mechlin for its centre, should lead toward the east by Louvain, Liege, and Verviers, to the Prussian frontier ; towards the north to Antwerp ; towards the west by Termonde, Ghent, and Bruges, to Ostend ; and towards the south, over Brussels, and through Hainault, to the French frontier ;—the costs of the execution, and the superintendence, to devolve upon the government, and the tariff for the use of the railroads to be fixed yearly by a law. The works began immediately after the publication of the law, and have since been forwarded with great success. In 1839, they comprised an extent of 150 British miles ; while those which are decided upon towards France will embrace a further distance of 90 miles. So persevering besides is the activity of the government in the improvement of the country, that large sums are also voted for new roads and canals, although Belgium is already so rich in the facilities of communication. Of the public works, not a few, such as the railroads for uniting the Scheldt and the sea with the Rhine, and the constructions towards the German frontier, have been projected with the view of rendering comparatively unproductive to Holland the rivers which had secured to her the commercial monopoly of the Rhenish provinces, and the transit trade to Germany.

The external commerce of the kingdom suffered from the revolution of 1830, but it has again revived, and now shows a progressive improvement, corresponding with that which has occurred in the other branches of industry. The exports chiefly consist of bark from the trees of the

Belgian forests, of which nearly 350,000 cwts. are annually exported to Great Britain alone; seeds, especially clover, coal, of which immense quantities are annually sent to France, where it is received on more favorable terms than that from England; spelter, flax, hops, linens, lace, carpets, and fire-arms; the last being sent in large quantities to Brazil, from whence they are again exported to Africa in exchange for slaves. The imports are principally composed of tropical produce, especially coffee, tobacco, and cotton, British manufactures, wool to the annual value of £550,000, chiefly from Germany, Poland, Hungary, and the southern provinces of Russia, and wine. The following account, abridged from the tables of the Board of Trade, (vol. v. p. 338,) furnishes a general view of the commerce of Belgium for the first four years after its separation from Holland.

VALUE OF IMPORTS INTO BELGIUM.

	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.
France	£584,995	£2,249,768	£1,927,505	£1,425,952
Holland	404,419	348,399	730,426	1,073,436
Prussia, Hanse Towns, and Germany, }	448,474	1,166,399	1,284,820	1,064,743
Great Britain . .	1,550,224	3,289,102	2,643,877	2,102,649
Russia	54,463	300,434	224,850	180,044
United States . }	327,802	1,215,723	935,722	{ 710,876
Cuba				{ 298,315
Hayti				{ 166,084
Brazil	280,763	273,704	308,435	399,367
Other countries .	269,383	492,772	645,110	531,211
Total,	£3,920,523	£9,336,301	£8,700,745	£7,952,677

VALUE OF EXPORTS FROM BELGIUM.

	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.
France	£1,684,749	£2,420,365	£2,226,618	£3,121,534
Holland	281,826	321,765	708,046	712,274
Prussia, Hanse Towns, and Germany, }	1,188,953	1,288,684	862,425	1,484,344
Great Britain . .	528,743	318,173	414,154	323,968
Russia	—	23,036	10,205	22,065
United States . }	14,486	28,641	85,084	{ 57,500
Cuba				{ 24,825
Hayti				{ 72
Brazil	120,000	11,818	10,984	16,694
Other countries .	43,454	37,196	129,153	114,754
Total,	£3,862,211	£4,449,678	£4,446,669	£5,878,050

Since 1834 the trade has no doubt increased, though the shipping possessed by Belgium still remains inconsiderable. At the revolution in 1830,

many of the Belgian shipowners placed their vessels under the flag of Holland, as the latter retained all the colonies which formerly belonged to the two kingdoms jointly; and though some increase has since taken place, yet, on the 31st of December, 1837, the number of merchant vessels belonging to the Belgian ports (including river ports,) was only 156, and their tonnage 21,690; this included 5 steamers, but was exclusive of about 100 fishing sloops. (*Board of Trade tables*, vol. vii. p. 286.)

The imports from the United Kingdom of England consist partly of foreign and colonial merchandise, but chiefly of British produce and manufactures. The declared value of the latter imported from 1831 to 1838, was as follows: 1832, £690,899; 1833, £886,429; 1834, £750,059; 1835, £818,487; 1836, £839,275; 1837, £804,917; 1838, £1,068,010; which last is equivalent to two thirds of the British exports to Holland and Belgium jointly in 1821. The imports from Britain chiefly consist of sheep's wool, woollen, linen, and cotton yarns, machinery, iron, steel, hardware and cutlery, especially the finer kinds, cotton manufactures and small wares, woollen cloths, silks, brass, copper, and pewter manufactures, and salt. A considerable portion of these goods, especially the yarns and cloths, are not intended for consumption in Belgium, but are smuggled across the French frontier; this is partly done by dogs trained for the purpose by being pampered in France, and half-starved and otherwise ill-used in the former country.

According to official returns, it would seem that there is a great discrepancy between the export and import trade of the United States with Belgium. For the year ending the 20th of September, our imports from Belgium were only \$274,867; while our exports for the same period amounted to—domestic produce \$1,824,229; foreign produce \$486,426; total \$2,320,565.

Out of 28,000 bales of cotton imported into Antwerp in 1832, more than 12,000 were received from Great Britain, while only 13,000 arrived from the United States direct. The same proportion probably continues to be preserved. Out of 12,000 hhds. of tobacco, more than 1,000 reached Belgium through England. Of rice a large portion of that grown in the United States also reaches Belgium through Great Britain.

It is evident that the trade of the United States and Belgium is not what it ought to be, and that by proper efforts it might be materially increased. The Belgians themselves earnestly desire a closer commercial connection with us, and a free trade on both sides would be eminently advantageous.

The bonding yards are at Antwerp, Bruges, Brussels, Courtray, Ghent, Liege, Louvain, Mechlin, Mons, Nieuport, Ostend, Ruremonde, Tournay, and Venloo.

Belgium communicates with the sea by Antwerp, Ostend, and Nieuport, by the canal of Bruges to Oostburg, by the canal of Dunkirk to Furnes, by the canal of Ghent to Terneusen, by the canal of Termonde to Hulst, by the Scheldt from Flushing to Antwerp, by the same river and the canal of Willebroek from Brussels to Antwerp, and by the canal of Louvain and the Scheldt from Louvain to Antwerp. But the only seaports of any consideration are Antwerp and Ostend.

Antwerp, a strongly fortified and magnificent town, is situated in 51 deg. 14 min. north, and 4 deg. 22 min. east, on low ground, on the right bank of the Scheldt, where the river makes a considerable bend. Population in 1838, 77,162. It is about 45 miles from the mouth of the Scheldt,

reckoning from Flushing, where vessels bound for Antwerp must take a Dutch pilot as far as Lillo. The river at Antwerp is about 400 yards broad, and large vessels may sail up to the quay, and into a large basin; the depth at low water in front of the city being from 32 to 42 feet. Its commerce is still considerable, though far below what it was in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, when it had a population of 200,000, and 2000 vessels annually entered its port. In 1829, 995 ships arrived; 690 in 1830; and only 382 in 1831; but since this last year the shipping has greatly increased, and in 1837 the number of vessels which entered was 1426, and the amount of their tonnage, 225,759.

Ostend, a fortified seaport of West Flanders, is situated in 51 deg. 10 min. north, and 2 deg. 54 min. east. Population, 11,390. It possesses great facilities for carrying on trade with the interior by means of railways and canals. The town is almost surrounded by two of the largest of these, particularly that leading to Bruges, into which ships of great tonnage may enter with the tide. The number that arrive annually is from 500 to 600.

MEASURES, WEIGHTS, MONEY, FINANCES, &c.

Measures and Weights.—The French metrical system was introduced in 1820.

The following old measures are still partially used: The Antwerp silk ell = 27.32 Imp. inches, and woollen ell = 26.97 Imp. inches; the Brabant ell = 27.58 Imp. inches; the aam of 50 stoops = 32½ Imp. galls.; the velte = 4.1 Imp. galls.; the last of 37½ viertels = 10½ Imp. qrs.; and 100 lbs. Brabant weight = 103.35 lbs. avoird. The Brabant league is 6076 yds.

The currency, owing to the long influence of the French, has assumed the French form, and is now counted in francs, centimes, and sous. The florin is, however, still counted.

Money.—The general monetary unit is now the French franc, which is divided into 100 centimes, and equal 9½d. sterling. In some places the Dutch florin or guilder (= 1s. 8d. sterling) is still retained, particularly in foreign exchanges; and in others the Brabant florin; the latter is divided into 20 sous, each of 12 deniers; 6 florins Dutch or Netherlands currency = 7 florins Brabant currency; 189 Dutch florins = 400 francs; and 110 florins 5 sous Brabant currency = 200 francs. The national coins are similar to those of France.

The usance of bills from London is 1 month's date. No days of grace are allowed.

Banks.—The *Société Générale pour favoriser l'Industrie*, instituted in 1822, with a charter for 27 years, discounts bills, receives deposits, makes loans, and in various ways facilitates commerce. Its capital (exclusive of a reserved fund) consists of 50,000 florins, or 105,820,000 francs (£4,166,666,) and it issues notes to the amount of 40,000,000 francs, in sums of 50, 100, 500, and 1,000 francs. The *Bank of Belgium*, at Brussels, was founded in 1835, with a charter for 25 years. Its capital is 20,000,000 francs, and its banking operations are similar to the society just named. Both are in part under the control of the government, and possess numerous dependencies. In 1837, the *Commercial Bank of Antwerp* was instituted with a capital of 25,000,000 francs; and numerous other institutions of the same nature exist in different parts of the kingdom.

Finances.—The public revenue in 1839 amounted to £4,163,821; the

expenditure to £4,476,613. The national debt consists, 1st, of 100,000,000 francs, borrowed in 1831-32, at 5 per cent, chiefly for the organization of the army; 2d, of 30,000,000 francs, borrowed in 1836, at 4 per cent, for railways and other means of communication; 3d, of a floating debt of 25,000,000 francs, at 3½ per cent, principally for railways and roads;—total, 155,000,000 francs, or £6,200,000. This is exclusive of the Belgian portion of the debt of the Netherlands.

ART. III.—THE RUSSIAN INSOLVENCY LAWS.

In a previous number of the Merchants' Magazine we gave a brief explanation of the Russian Law of Co-partnery in Trade, we now proceed to lay before our readers the substance of the Russian Insolvency Laws:

All cases of insolvency belong to the competency of the local commercial court under which the debtor, and the majority of his creditors reside. In towns where there is no commercial court, the magistracy supplies its place.

A state of insolvency is established in court, by the discovery or declaration of the incapacity of a merchant, a licensed trader, or tradesman, to discharge debts claimed on him to an amount exceeding £250, (S. R. 1,500,) this involving a surrender of the debtor's estate to his creditors, with investigation and judgment of his conduct.

Insolvency is prejudicial to a debtor in three degrees, according to the causes from which it has arisen, namely: it is deemed *unfortunate* if caused by a concurrence of unforeseen circumstances and losses without the fault of the debtor; or it is deemed *careless or simple* when he is found guilty of evident mismanagement or levity, without intentional fraud; and lastly, it is deemed *fraudulent* when the debtor is found guilty of fraudulent deeds and practices.

A private compromise between a debtor and his creditors, in which the latter allow him respite of payment, with assistance in the management of his affairs, does not constitute insolvency, nor can any one be deemed to be in that predicament unless the declaration is made in court.

A merchant declared by the court to be in a state of insolvency, is, on the same day, taken into custody, unless his creditors consent to admit him to bail. Every insolvency is officially announced in the gazettes of both capitals, and in that published by the Senate, and special notices are affixed upon the exchange, in the commercial court, and in the town-hall, bearing an order for sequestration of the debtor's property, an injunction to his debtors to give up and discharge what they owe him, and a summons to his creditors for giving in their claims, which has to be done in the course of a fortnight from publication by those residing at the same place with the debtor, or in four months if resident at other parts of the empire, and in twelve months if resident abroad.

The court forthwith appoints one or more sworn guardians to take charge of the cash, goods and chattels, books, accounts, and correspondence of the debtor, found in his possession, making an inventory thereof, and the debtor is at the same time put to an oath, to discover and give up all he possesses. This is done by the police, in the presence of such creditors as reside on

the spot and appear at the summons. After this the sworn guardian, being assisted by creditors on the spot, takes the place of the debtor in the management and realization of pending transactions, until a board of assignees can be instituted.

As soon as the majority of creditors, by amount, have appeared personally, or by proxy, and given in their claims, the guardian of the estate calls a meeting for the election of assignees, to compose a board of managers, for which two or more persons are chosen by vote, and may be parties not concerned, with a president, who must needs be a creditor himself. If, at the expiration of a fortnight from the publication of insolvency, no meeting of creditors has taken place for electing a board of managers, the court, ex-officio, appoints some of the creditors to that charge. Such a board of managers constitutes a lower commercial court for the special occasion, and is attended by a secretary or writer. It is entitled to require the aid of local administrative and executive authorities, as occasion may appear, and the institution of the board is announced in the papers.

The board of managers supersedes the guardian in taking charge of the debtor's estate and books, investigating the latter, realizing the property, calling in the outstanding debts, and examining the claims given in by creditors according to law.

The claims of the creditors, after having been examined and vouchers produced; are by the board arranged into four classes, namely: 1. *Preferable* claims, entitled to payment in full; 2. *Undisputable common claims*, entitled to dividend; 3. *Disputable common claims*, requiring to be investigated and awarded by courts of justice, in order to become admissible to participation in dividend; and 4. *Claims not filed* within the time prescribed by the publication of insolvency.

The preferable claims comprise money due to the church; taxes, duties, and rates due to government; claims on mortgages or other special hypothecary securities, to be paid in full for redeeming those securities; money belonging to orphans, that are under the guardianship of the debtor; wages due for the six months preceding the declaration of insolvency; claims of bakers, butchers, and the like, for victuals furnished to the house during the preceding four months; claims of innkeepers for board and lodging of the debtor and his family, during the preceding six months; claims of street pavers and other workmen employed in housebuilding; claims for the freight money of goods; claims of brokerage for the last year; expenses of the guardian and assignees of the insolvent's estate. The claims of this class are to be discharged out of the first sums of money received by the board of managers. If the assets prove even insufficient for discharging all the claims of this class in full, then those of the church take precedence for payment in full, the rest being discharged pro rata of the means left.

The undisputable common claims, entitled to dividend, comprise those due to government, to the loan and commercial banks, and to private creditors, without special securities, with the interest due thereon for twelve months before insolvency.

The disputable common claims are not excluded from the account, but only admitted to participation in dividend according as their validity becomes adjudged to the claimants by the proper courts.

The claims not filed in proper time are thrown out, unless the claimants can plead that the delay was occasioned by extraordinary circumstances

having prevented their giving them in. To this class also belong claims on bonds without security, if the bonds had not been registered by a notary within eight days after their date, nor the amount been claimed before insolvency within three months after maturity; or such as were claimed, but not presented for obtaining payment when due; and lastly, debts not claimed before the insolvency, though due upwards of twelve months.

In regard to what is legally deemed as constituting the estate of the insolvent, the board of managers have not only to claim all reputed property of the insolvent found on hand, but also all immoveable property of his, pawned or granted by him to his wife, children, or relations during the preceding ten years, without payment actually received, or estranged to such holders at a time when he appears to have already been insolvent, by his debts having exceeded his property by a hundred per cent or more, because under such circumstances the property estranged did not at the time belong to the debtor, but to his creditors, and it must be returned to his estate, if not already legally re-disposed of by the relatives to others, and if it is found to be merely re-pawned by them to such other persons, then the board may buy it in.

If the wife and children of the insolvent had no share in his business, then their private property does not belong to the estate. Such private property comprises, 1st. The wife's dowry, by an inventory signed by her husband before marriage, together with her inheritance and grants or gifts from her relations or friends, except from the husband; also, the increase of such property by investment. 2d. The children's inheritance from relations and others, with grants and gifts not derived from the father. If such property have been intrusted to the insolvent, and this be proved by proper documents, his wife and children rank with the second class of creditors entitled to dividend.

Moveable and immoveable deposits and pawns, or articles intrusted to the insolvent for preparation or manufacture, if he be a manufacturer or tradesman, do not belong to the estate, and are returned to the owners. Property intrusted to him at interest by guardians of orphans, of money belonging to the latter, is only entitled to dividend; but if he himself was the guardian, having charge of such property, it does not belong to the estate, but is reserved for the orphans in full, with the interest due thereon; and the bankrupt having employed such moneys for his private purposes is impeachable for such a criminal abuse of his duty as a guardian.

All goods or merchandise found on hand, unless they have been bought and received within ten days of the publication of insolvency, without the condition of credit, and not yet paid for, in which latter case such goods are returned to the seller, but if bought on credit, then they belong to the estate.

When goods had been purchased by the insolvent on order, if the bills of lading or carrier's receipt have already been sent on, but the payment of the invoice amount have not been yet received, or if even drawn for, payable after a certain time, yet a doubt existing of the drafts passed being duly protected and paid, in such case the board of managers, as the circumstances of the case may require, must endeavor to preserve the estate from loss, either by unloading and retaining the goods, paying one half of the freight agreed for as indemnity to the shipmaster or carrier, provided the ship is not entirely loaded, or if the ship's loading be com-

plete, and the vessel cannot be stopped, then by sending another copy of the bill of lading to a second party at the port of destination of the goods, with instructions to stop the goods until this holder of the second bill of lading shall have satisfied himself, on behalf of the assignees, of the due protection and payment of the drafts passed by the insolvent. If the shipment of goods have been made in consignment for sale, on account of the insolvent, and the unshipment appear connected with considerable loss to the estate, then the board of managers, if they deem it best, may let the goods take their course, instructing the consignee to remit the proceeds to them. These rules are also applicable to goods despatched by land.

Whenever goods bought at other places in Russia, or abroad, on account of the insolvent, have got into his possession before his declaration of insolvency in court, then they belong to his estate; but if they arrive after such declaration, then they do not belong to the estate, except there be a balance due to the insolvent from the shipper, equal to the amount of the goods; or the insolvent should before declaration, have accepted drafts on him to the amount of such goods.

Goods sent to the insolvent in consignment, having got into his possession before the declaration of insolvency in court, belong to the estate, and the consignor is only entitled to a claim of dividend for the amount of the nett proceeds, the same as other creditors. This is also the rule with regard to goods, despatched in consignment, if, though not yet received, the same be proved to have been sold by the insolvent before his declaration of insolvency, on bill of lading and invoice, and the money received by him; the transaction having in such case been concluded before the declaration. If such goods, coming in consignment, have before arrival been sold on credit, without the bankrupt's guarantee of the buyer, (the charge for *delcredere* not having been made to the consignor,) and the buyer's bill received, be still in the possession of the insolvent, untransferred to other hands; then such bill supplies the place of the goods, and has to be delivered up to the consignor as his property, on receiving from him payment of the charges disbursed on the goods, with commission. But if the bankrupt have guaranteed the buyer, and made an adequate charge, then the bill belongs to the estate; and the consignor of the goods is only entitled to claim dividend; while the party who bought the goods, and paid the amount, or gave a bill in lieu thereof, is entitled to receive them as soon as they arrive by sea or by land.

Goods ordered by the insolvent on account of others, and arriving after his declaration of insolvency in court, though the bill of lading and invoice may have been received before, do not belong to the estate, and are held at the disposal of the person for whom they were ordered. The shipper of such goods, if he be still creditor for the amount already received by the bankrupt from the party, who ordered the goods through the bankrupt, has to claim dividend on the estate. A bankrupt having ordered and imported goods by order of a neighbor, and received from the latter the amount in advance, but sold the goods by bill of lading to some other person before his declaration of insolvency, thus fraudulently depriving the party who ordered them, of his property, is impeachable of fraudulent bankruptcy.

If there be goods on hand with the bankrupt, intrusted to him before his being declared insolvent, in his capacity of commission agent, simply for the payment of duties, and for forwarding of the goods to an ulterior des-

tinuation; such goods belong to their owner, and must be delivered up to him or to his proxy without delay, on payment of duties and charges disbursed by the bankrupt. If it be discovered that the bankrupt having had to act simply as a forwarding agent, has, without the consent of the party for whom the goods were destined, sold the same, or transferred the bill of lading to others, receiving the amount, then he is also impeachable as a fraudulent bankrupt; while the buyer is not answerable, unless it be proved that he had been privy to, and participated in the fraudulent design.

The board of managers have to come to a conclusion whether the insolvency is to be deemed *unfortunate*, or *careless*, or *fraudulent*, the latter being a criminal case. If it be deemed unfortunate, they may with the consent of the court, and without awaiting a general meeting of creditors, liberate the insolvent immediately from custody, without requiring bail.

The board of assignees having fulfilled all their duties as above enumerated, fix a time for a general meeting of the creditors, whose claims are admitted. Such a meeting is deemed full, if the number of creditors appearing own two thirds of the gross amount of debts. The board have to lay before the meeting—1st. A detailed report of their transactions; 2d. An account of assets and debts; 3d. A computation of dividends; and 4th. A conclusion concerning the causes of the insolvency. The meeting either approves of and confirms, or if necessary, modifies the accounts and proposals of the board for bringing matters to a termination.

If the meeting find that the board of managers have been guilty of any neglect of duties or abuse of power, they report the same to the commercial court, which investigate the charges brought against the board, appointing a new president, and the meeting immediately proceed in electing new assignees from amongst themselves; nor can the court refuse to appoint a new president to such new board of managers. This intermediate question being at rest, or set to rights, the meeting comes to a final conclusion—1st. Concerning the realization of the property still remaining on hand; 2d. Concerning the final classification of the claims and the rate of dividends to be paid; and lastly, respecting the degree of guilt to be attributed to the insolvent debtor.

If the insolvent be pronounced *unfortunate*, the consequences are: 1st. Liberation from prison, if he be still in custody; 2d. Restoration of a character of honor, the same as if he had not failed, and relief from further responsibility; and 3d. Awarding to the insolvent and his family, of such part of the assets, in the shape of a voluntary gift, as his misfortune and good conduct may appear to them to deserve.

The consequences of *careless* failure are: 1st. Continuation of imprisonment, doing away bail, for a period of from one to three years, including the time he may already have been in custody; leaving it to the court to mitigate the sentence; 2d. The total loss of the right to carry on trade, which he can subsequently only resume with the special consent of his creditors, on his prevailing on them to grant such consent before the court. If, in the mean while, the careless bankrupt gets into possession of property by inheritance, gift, or otherwise, the whole of it is claimed by the admitted creditors, in further discharge of his debts; and this also applies to property acquired by him in trade resumed with the consent of his creditors; in this latter case however, his new creditors in business have pre-

ferable claims to be paid in full, before the old ones can come in for a share.

The consequences of *fraudulent* insolvency are: 1st. Impeachment of fraud in the criminal court, and of perjury, if after making oath, to discover and give up all his property, the debtor shall have attempted to conceal any part of it; 2d. Criminal impeachment of any parties that have been privy to, or instrumental in committing the fraud; 3d. Restitution of payment made to the accomplices in part of fraudulent transactions and claims, such sums belonging to the estate; the criminal court inflicting punishment according to law. Such conclusions of the meeting of the creditors are submitted to the confirmation of the commercial court, and then published in the public papers of both capitals.

A private compromise entered into by a bankrupt during the six months preceding his declaration of insolvency in court, with part of his creditors, to the prejudice of others in the same predicament, is void. Such a compromise can only be valid—1st. If concluded in a general meeting of creditors at the expiration of legal summons for making claims; 2d. If in such meeting two thirds of the creditors by amount of claims, have assented; 3d. If confirmed by the commercial court. Such a compromise may also be entered into under a board of managers in concursu, and if concluded, supersedes it, with a cessation of legal proceedings in court.

The guardianship of an insolvent estate is entitled to a remunerative commission of 1 per cent on all property realized under it, not exceeding about £14,000, and of $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent on the surplus. The creditors may award more. The board of managers, including the president, are jointly entitled to a commission of 2 per cent of the amount of assets realized.

Russian, as well as foreign merchants, and other trading classes, are bound to keep regular books, according to the forms prescribed for the different classes of trade, and to balance the same annually, towards ascertaining the state of their property. Books regularly kept have the strength of half or full proofs in disputes, under the respective circumstances, prescribed by the laws. In lawsuits it is optional with a solvent merchant, to produce or not to produce his books by way of proof; but in questions concerning inheritance and co-partnery, when one of the litigating parties refers to their contents, the court may order the production of the books in court, or to a member of the court, for the perusal of certain passages therein, but even then they need not be delivered up or left in the court. In all other cases a solvent merchant's books constitute a sacred secret of his own, which nobody is allowed a right to encroach upon or divulge.

In cases of insolvency declared in court however, the books, as above stated, are taken from the debtor by the guardian, and then delivered to the board of managers for examination and investigation. If they be found deficient or incorrect, the debtor is impeachable of fraudulent bankruptcy without benefit of justification. The severity of this law can only be mitigated in regard to petty dealers and shopkeepers, the amount of whose business does not exceed about £470 per annum, the creditors assembled being allowed to decide, whether their irregularity is to be considered as having arisen from fraudulent intention or not. Books must have been preserved and be found in existence for the last ten years preceding failure. The Russian code of laws contains the most minute in-

structions and details regarding the kind of books required to be kept by each class of merchants, according to the nature of their trade, with complete proforma sets.

ART. IV.—IRON TRADE OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY.*

SWEDEN has been long celebrated for its mines and mineral productions, particularly iron, which still forms one of the principal exports, although it has much decreased of late years. By an account taken by the government in the year 1748, we find that, at that time, there were 496 foundries, with 589 large hammers, and 971 small ones, for making bar and other manufactures of iron, which produced 304,415 ship-pounds, (7½ to a ton,) or nearly 40,600 tons.

The government established an office in 1740 to promote the production of iron, by lending money on the ore, even at so low a rate as 4 per cent. ; a correct register was then made of the mines, which is still continued. Each forge has its particular mark stamped on the bars of iron it produces, which is correctly copied into the manuscript, with the name of the place where the establishment is situated—the names of the proprietors of the work—the commissioner or agent for the sale of the iron—the assortment each makes, and to what country it is generally shipped—the quantity annually made by each work—the quantity which each work delivers to the government (which is about 1 per cent on the quantity of the iron produced)—the estimation of the quality of the iron of each work, which is variable—the place and province in which the works are situated—the place from whence the iron is generally shipped—and how many hammers each work has—all which particulars are regularly and alphabetically described and arranged.

As the working of the mines is attended with considerable expense, and the sale of the iron uncertain, the Bank of Stockholm receives that metal as a proper security for a loan. The iron being duly appraised, and lodged in the public warehouse, the proprietor receives three fourths of its value, at the interest of 3 per cent, and when he can find an opportunity to dispose of his iron, it is again delivered to him, on producing a certificate from the bank, that the loan upon it is duly discharged.

The following account of the state of the forges, producing 1500 ship-pounds of iron and upwards, is taken from the “*Voyage de deux Français, dans le Nord de l’Europe ; 1790–92.*” It is to be observed that they only speak of those forges of which the produce is taken to Stockholm :—

<i>Name.</i>	<i>Province.</i>	<i>Shipp'ds.</i>	<i>Quality.</i>	<i>No.</i>
Axmar	Gestricia . .	1,500	<i>g</i>	2
Malingsbo	Dalecarlia . .	1,500	<i>g</i>	2
Bakkammar	Westmania . .	1,750	<i>g & m</i>	2
Boggo	Ditto	2,127	<i>m</i>	3

* Prepared chiefly from Scrivenor's “*Comprehensive History of the Iron Trade, throughout the world, from the earliest records, to the present period,*” published at London, 1841.—*Ed. Mag.*

Forsbacka	Gestricia	1,600	<i>m</i>	2
Willingsberg	Nericia	1,800	<i>g</i>	2
Watolma	Upland	2,000	<i>g</i>	3
Bjorkborn and Bæufors	Wermeland	2,070	<i>m & r s</i>	3
Lasona	Nericia	1,748	<i>g</i>	2
Gammelbo	Westmania	2,875	<i>m</i>	4
Wirsbo	Ditto	1,725	<i>g</i>	2
Larsbo	Dalecarlia	2,200	<i>m</i>	4
Engelsberg	Westmania	1,539	<i>g</i>	3
Forsmark	Upland	2,875	<i>g</i>	4
Maroker	Helsingia	2,450	<i>r s</i>	3
Graninge	Angermannia	2,000	<i>r s & m</i>	3
Gimo, Romæus, and Robersfors	Upland	2,875	<i>g & b</i>	7
Finoker	Westmania	1,943	<i>g</i>	3
Kihlafors	Helsingia	2,000	<i>m</i>	3
Gravendahl	Dalecarlia	2,450	<i>m</i>	4
Læfta	Upland 9 to 10,000		<i>g</i>	6
Hasslefors	Nericia	1,725	<i>g & b</i>	2
Austerby	Upland 5 to 6,000		<i>m</i>	4
Lægdæu and Logfors	Medelpadia	1,525	<i>m</i>	2
Olorsfors	Angermannia	2,000	<i>m</i>	3
Koscis	Finland	1,500	<i>g</i>	2
Kerby	Upland	2,000	<i>m</i>	3
Paulistræum	Smoland	2,400	<i>g</i>	4
Romnæs	Westmania	2,025	<i>r s</i>	3
Bernshammer	Ditto	1,950	<i>m</i>	2
Longwind	Helsingia	1,600	<i>g</i>	2
Schebo	Upland	2,275	<i>m</i>	3
Niksiaeu	Gestricia	1,600	<i>g</i>	2
Stromberg and Ulfors	Upland	3,100	<i>g</i>	4
Haugbo	Gestricia	1,625	<i>m</i>	2
Woxna	Helsingia	1,900	<i>g</i>	3
Krakfors	Nericia	1,500	<i>g</i>	2
Suderfors	Upland	1,840	<i>b</i>	5
Gysinge	Gestricia	1,800	<i>g</i>	2
Ferna	Westmania	2,400	<i>m</i>	4
Tolfors	Gestricia	1,800	<i>g</i>	2
Finspong	Ostrogothia	1,810	<i>m</i>	4
Lædvicka	Dalecarlia	2,400	<i>m</i>	3
Hargs	Upland	3,400	<i>g</i>	5

m, middling; *g*, good; *r s*, red-short; *b*, best.

There are in all 299 large forges, which furnish 227,507 ship-pounds, besides 92 small ones belonging to a company of peasants, furnishing 18,236 ship-pounds.—Total, 245,743 ship-pounds. These forges employ 373 hammers; there are, besides, twelve inconsiderable forges, of which neither the hammers nor the products are stated.

The iron mine of Dannemora, the most celebrated in Sweden, is situated in the province of Upland, about one English mile from Osterby, and thirty English miles north of Upsala. This mine was discovered in the year 1448, and though it has now been wrought for nearly four centuries, it still yields abundance of the best iron in Europe.

The iron mine is on a hill so little elevated above the surface of the neighboring country as easily to escape observation. It is about two English miles long, and nearly half a mile broad; it is almost surrounded by lakes, those of Dannemora, Films, and Grufve, lying quite contiguous to it. On the side where there are no lakes there is a turf moss. The ore forms a large vein in this hill, which stretches in a northwest and southeast direction. The mine was some years ago inundated by the water from the adjacent lakes; a strong wall, however, has been built to keep off the water. It is drained by two steam-engines, kept at work by means of wood for fuel.

It was first wrought as a silver mine, the silver being extracted from galena. This source of emolument soon failing, or becoming unproductive, the iron ore began to be extracted and smelted, and the excellent quality of the iron gradually drew to it the attention of the public. At first it belonged to the king of Sweden, but that monarch consigned it over to the Archbishop of Upsala as a part of his revenues; at present it belongs to a number of private individuals, who work it separately, each on his own account.

At the side of the mine is a large opening, about fifty fathoms deep and fifty wide, and at the lower part of this is the entrance to the mine, which is wrought about thirty fathoms deeper than this opening. The mines are thus described in "Coxe's Travels," who visited them in the year 1790: "The pits are deep excavations, like gravel pits, and form so many abysses or gulfs. The descent is not, therefore, as is usual in mines, down a narrow subterraneous shaft. At the side of the mine I stepped into a bucket, and, being suspended in the open air, in the same manner as if a person was placed in a bucket at the top of Salisbury spire, was gradually let down to the ground by a rope and pulley. The inspector accompanied me to the bottom, and while I was placed at my ease in the inside upon a chair, he seated himself on the rim of the bucket, with his legs extended to maintain the equilibrium. He had in his hand a stick, with which he gently touched the sides of the rock, and the rope of the ascending bucket, in order to prevent our bucket from swerving against them, which must have infallibly upset us.

"While hung suspended in mid-air, and so giddy that I could not venture to look down, I observed three girls standing on the edge of the ascending bucket knitting, with as much unconcern as if they had been on *terra firma*; such is the effect of custom. We were about five minutes in descending, and the depth which we reached before I stepped out of my aerial seat was 500 feet. Not being a mineralogist, my curiosity was soon satisfied; I again got into the bucket, and was drawn up in the same manner.

"The inspector informed me, that the richest ore yields 70 per cent of iron, the poorest 30—that, upon an average, the collective mass gives one third of pure mineral—that about 12,000 tons are annually drawn from the mines, which yield about 4,000 tons of bar-iron.

"The mass of ore occupies a small compass. The length of the pits, considered as one, is 760 feet, and the breadth from three to twelve. The ore runs from east to west. The richest ore is near 500 feet in depth, and the Storöe Grube is not yet fathomed.

"The matrix of the ore being a calcareous earth, consequently contains but little sulphur, which is, perhaps, the reason of its superior quality."

The ore is blasted with gunpowder. The part of the vein which lies under the great opening, which forms the mouth of the mine, is called *stor rymning*; it constitutes by far the greatest portion of the mine. The next portion is called *jord grufva* (earth mine,) and it yields the ore of the very best quality. The portion furthest south is called *sodra grufva*, or southern mine; it yields the worst kind of ore of all the three, probably from being mixed with galena and blende. The rock through which the vein runs is said to be quartz. The substance immediately contiguous to the vein appeared to Dr. Thomson to be hornstone, and to contain hornblende. The ore itself contains limestone, quartz, and actinolite, and affords from 25 to 75 per cent of cast-iron. In the worst kind of ore Dr. Thomson also perceived blende, fluor-spar, galena, and amethyst, but in small quantities. Carbonate of lime, crystallized in dodecahedrons, also occurs in this vein; and likewise sulphate of barytes, mountain cork, and the aplome of Haüy.

The ore is broken into small pieces, and roasted; it is then put into conical-shaped furnaces, constructed of the slag from cast-iron. In these furnaces it is mixed with the proper quantity of charcoal, and then melted and separated from the slag. The cast-iron obtained in this manner is as white as silver, completely crystallized, and very brittle. The cast-iron is reduced to malleable iron by heating it in a bed of charcoal, and hammering it out into bars. In this state it is whiter than common iron, and is less liable to rust, is distinctly fibrous in its texture, and much stouter than any other iron.

The quantity of iron which this mine yields every year, amounts, as before stated, to about 4,000 tons; the whole of it is sent to England, to the house of Messrs. Sykes, of Hull, where it is known by the name of Oregrund iron, taking its name from the port at which it is shipped.

The first, or best, marks are (L), which sells at 40*l.* per ton.

" $\left. \begin{matrix} O & O \\ C_L \end{matrix} \right\}$ " 39*l.* "

while the best Russian mark, the C.C.N.D., seldom fetches a higher price than 20*l.* per ton.

The cause of the superiority of the Dannemora iron has never been explained. Some chemists ascribe it to the presence of manganese. Berzelius attributed it to the presence of the metal of silica, while others suppose it to arise from the nature of the process employed. Dr. Thomson was assured by one gentleman, who had bestowed particular attention to the subject, that by following a similar process he has obtained as good iron from other Swedish ores. But that something is due to the ore itself is evident from the circumstance, that the quality of the iron, though the same process is followed, differs a good deal, according to the part of the vein from which the ore is taken.

In the neighborhood of the mines are establishments for forging the iron, and for the accommodation of more than 300 workmen and their

families. Each of the little villages has three or four regular streets, often planted with trees, a church, a school, and an hospital.

The whole make of iron in Sweden was, in the year 1802, 364,315 ship-pounds, or about 48,000 tons, taking $7\frac{1}{2}$ ship-pounds as a ton English; in 1812 it had increased to 431,137 ship-pounds, or about 60,000 tons.

In 1833 there were in the whole of Sweden from 330 to 340 smelting furnaces, producing 90,000 to 95,000 tons of pig-iron; in converting this into bar-iron, about 23 per cent is allowed for waste, and as near as can be ascertained the annual manufacture of this latter is 63,000 to 65,000 tons. The number of iron works is about 420 to 430, having about 1,100 forge hammers. The annual export of bar-iron, on an average of ten years, ending 1831, was 49,568 tons. The smelting furnaces and iron works are licensed for a particular quantity, some being as low as 50 tons, others as high as 400 to 500 tons per annum; some few bar-iron works draw licenses for 1,000 tons each. The licenses are granted by the College of Mines, which has a control over all iron works and mining operations. The iron masters make annual returns of their manufacture, which must not exceed their privilege, on pain of the overplus being confiscated, and the college has subordinate courts, called courts of mines, in every district, with supervising officers of various ranks; and no iron can be sent to any port of shipment without being landed at the public weigh-house, the superintendent of which is also a delegate of the college, and his duty is to register all that arrives, and to send his report quarterly to the college. It is impossible for an iron master to send to market more than his license. Many, however, sell at the forges to inland consumers, returns of which are never made, and so far licenses are exceeded, but it is supposed this excess cannot be above 3,000 tons.

There is no chance whatever of the manufacture of iron in Sweden becoming free—on the contrary, there is much greater probability of its decrease, as in those parts of the country where iron works are established there are already as many forges as the neighboring forests can supply with charcoal. If there are proprietors of forests on which they can prove that iron works have not been privileged in former times, in that case the government cannot refuse to grant the right of erecting works in proportion thereto—but, except either very far north, or far in the interior, there do not exist such woods.

It does not always follow that the forests belong to the proprietors of the iron works, but they have, nevertheless, the right of purchasing all the charcoal sold from these woods. We may consider the case in this manner:—A person, a century back, who had 20,000 acres of forest, may have obtained the privilege of manufacturing 200 tons of iron annually; the estate in the lapse of time has become divided amongst a number of heirs, or has been sold in lots to different persons; but the proprietor of the iron works still retains the right to the charcoal of the whole, if any is made, for sale.

There is no department in Sweden conducted with more fairness than the College of Mines, which manages these matters.

The following tables exhibit the quantity and different kinds of iron exported from Sweden in each year, from 1831 to 1838; also the countries to which it was exported in the same period.

IRON EXPORTED FROM SWEDEN FROM 1831 TO 1838.

DESCRIPTION.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.
Bar-iron*	427,995	401,376	423,400	400,175
Pig-iron	6,097	7,022	6,627	6,476
Iron not specified	1,949	739	838	658
Round iron	1,333	1,546	1,750	1,409
Spike iron	5,349	8,789	2,961	2,250
Sheet iron	2,153	2,009	1,963	1,798
Nails	9,125	7,505	7,760	8,422
Nail rods	1,087	627	587	849
Hoop iron	2,309	2,454	2,273	1,783
Castings, cannon, balls, &c.	2,905	3,816	7,214	5,307
Saltpan plates	176	187	158	123
Anchors, anvils, &c.	79	213	175	249
Ploughshares	356	370	584	508
Hardware	1,063	83	215	10
Scrap iron	2,922	2,996	2,270	1,669
Manufactured iron	1,156	842	789	631
Old cannon	..	115	32	..
Retorts
Chain cables
Machinery
Total ship-pounds	466,054	440,689	459,546	432,517
“ tons	62,141	58,759	61,273	57,669

IRON EXPORTED FROM SWEDEN FROM 1831 TO 1838.

Continued.

DESCRIPTION.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.
Bar-iron	493,601	470,627	336,683	543,329
Pig-iron	5,762	9,749	7,485	10,336
Iron not specified	778	24,381†	38,674	26,140
Round iron	2,286	2,234	2,182	2,664
Spike iron	3,985	3,744	1,488	4,054
Sheet iron	4,821	2,326	2,055	2,626
Nails	4,745	6,303	7,970	7,816
Nail rods	780	884	652	779
Hoop iron	2,945	2,037	2,791	1,944
Castings, cannon, balls, &c.	4,561	7,670	8,119	7,228
Saltpan plates	157	98	67	213
Anchors, anvils, &c.	70	65	96	98
Ploughshares	382	552	577	1,044
Hardware	16	35	103	105
Scrap iron	2,651	2,012	3,449	3,844
Manufactured iron	929	548	517	424
Old cannon	473
Retorts
Chain cables	25	7
Machinery	30
Total ship-pounds	528,469	533,265	413,133	613,154
“ tons	70,463	71,102	55,084	81,754

* Ship-pounds, 7½ to a ton.

† In 1836 seventy tons of pig-iron were sent to England; with this exception, the whole of the pig-iron went to Finland. Iron not specified also goes to Finland, with a trifling exception.

IRON EXPORTED FROM SWEDEN FROM 1831 TO 1838.—Continued.

SPECIFICATION ; AND COUNTRIES TO WHICH EXPORTED.

COUNTRIES TO WHICH EXPORTED.	1831.		1832.		1833.		1834.	
	Bars. Tons.	Other iron.	Bars. Tons.	Other iron.	Bars. Tons.	Other iron.	Bars. Tons.	Other iron.
Great Britain and Ireland....	11,907..	55	11,717..	62	13,021..	12	11,509..	49
United States of America....	23,133..	683	20,002..	1222	20,644..	343	19,618..	287
France.....	3,810..	..	5,398..	36	5,820..	40	6,304..	11
Norway	261..	320	329..	79	251..	304	144..	129
Finland.....	661..	1268	617..	1449	851..	1455	719..	1370
Russia.....	1..	70	..	1
Prussia.....	4,051..	1010	2,944..	862	2,419..	722	2,740..	892
Denmark.....	3,557..	930	3,926..	788	4,330..	960	3,442..	844
German States.....	4,383..	540	3,724..	546	4,707..	607	4,712..	421
Portugal.....	2,052..	104	1,319..	68	1,098..	55	1,093..	53
Holland.....	1,110..	113	1,658..	66	1,302..	107	1,215..	80
Belgium	337..	..
Austria.....
Italy.....	204..	2	27..	2	175	26	301..	36
Spain	4..	17
Gibraltar.....	94..	6	25..	..	87	2	295..	15
Greece.....	5..	73
East Indies.....	353..	5	321..	3	624..	28	67..	3
Brazil.....	1,490..	39	1,505..	11	853..	27	654..	3
Other parts of S. America...	58..	45
West India Islands.....	32	254..	6
Africa.....	16..	56	44..	..
Total.....	57,066..	5075	53,516..	5243	56,453..	4820	53,357..	4312

SPECIFICATION, ETC.—CONTINUED.

COUNTRIES TO WHICH EXPORTED.	1835.		1836.		1837.		1838.	
	Bars. Tons.	Other iron.	Bars. Tons.	Other iron.	Bars. Tons.	Other iron.	Bars. Tons.	Other iron.
Great Britain and Ireland....	13,050..	42	16,530..	137	11,932..	3	14,546...	10
United States of America....	28,728..	476	27,342..	560	10,709..	151	25,669...	585
France.....	5,732..	56	3,574..	2	4,812..	18	7,413...	47
Norway	179..	152	161..	213	162..	335	34...	176
Finland	792..	1428	348..	4626	603..	6923	1,098...	4952
Russia	2	..	154	1...	..
Prussia.....	1,936..	849	1,805..	865	2,453..	939	2,672...	935
Denmark.....	3,306..	617	2,979..	911	3,846..	742	4,495...	1144
German States.....	4,980..	549	5,160..	569	4,640..	552	6,742...	795
Portugal	3,953..	214	2,482..	143	1,744..	106	3,327...	125
Holland	1,809..	167	1,503..	104	1,718..	323	3,091...	347
Belgium.....	133..	..	93..	53	152...	16
Austria	22...	5
Italy.....	34..	8	93..	54	213..	7	272...	20
Spain.....	..	2	..	4
Gibraltar.....	36..	204..	4	71...	6
Greece.....	22...	2
East Indies.....	75..	677..	..	1,004...	..
Brazil.....	860..	14	674..	..	1,083..	4	1,231...	94
Other parts of S. America...	9	10..	2	29...	3
West India Islands.....	10..	88...	2
Africa.....	193..	72	6..	10	112..	4	465...	46
Total.....	65,815..	4648	62,750..	8352	44,918..	10166	72,444..	9310

The foregoing tables and statements furnish the latest accounts of the Swedish Iron Trade. But the following returns, derived from the London Mercantile Journal, of March 1, 1841, received from Stockholm; which is the chief entrepot for Swedish iron, and from whence supplies outwards are furnished, may be accepted as a sufficient index of the state of the iron industry for the years 1838, 1839, and 1840.

	<i>Ship-pounds.</i>
Stock of bar-iron in entrepot, Nov. 1838,	126,744
Received to 31st of October, 1839,	276,087
	<hr/>
Total,	402,831
Exported abroad,	283,505

For internal consumption 14,025 ship-pounds only were taken. There remained in entrepot, on the first of November, 1839, 105,803 ship-pounds.

On a balance of figures, the quantity in entrepot should be 119,300 ship-pounds: how the difference arises is not stated, and it is of little consequence. In 1840 bar-iron was only exported for 258,618 ship-pounds. A rather undesirable falling off from 1839, but still, as observed, equal or superior to the exports of any former year. The quantity taken for internal consumption had increased, however, to 19,738 ship-pounds. Of steel, iron in other shapes, such as sheet-iron, iron rods, hammered iron, nails, &c., the weight exported from Stockholm in the same year, was 22,059 ship-pounds. Taken for internal consumption 16,992 ship-pounds.

The unsettled state of our (United States) commercial and monetary affairs has no doubt tended to lessen Swedish exports to this country, whilst, on the contrary, the exports to Germany have considerably increased. The multiplication of railroads throughout that part of the European continent will not improbably have added to the demand for Swedish iron.

NORWAY.

Of the mines of Norway, those of iron are esteemed the most profitable. They are chiefly situated not far from Arindal, in the southern province of Christiansand; and near them, between Arindal and Konsberg, (according to Busching, vol. i. page 341,) ochre is found at Wardhus, in Finmark, of a beautiful skyblue, probably like that of Elba, and is the sign of a rich iron mine. The iron ore of Arindal is black mingled with quartz. At Bderum the Count Wedel von Jarlberg has iron mines and works, where are made grates, pots, and a variety of other articles.

Oddy, in his work on "European Commerce," observes, that iron makes no regular article of export from Norway; yet there does not appear any reason why they might not have cultivated this branch of manufacture as well as Sweden. Wood they have in sufficient abundance. There are several foundries in Norway, but they have not been worked with spirit, their produce is therefore but small. Since the year 1792, they have not much extended their works. Moss, a town of a thousand inhabitants, contains a principal iron work. Skaggerak is also in repute for its iron trade.

We close this account of the iron trade with the early statistics of the produce of the iron works of Norway, in the years 1791 and 1792, and with the exports in the years 1829, 1830, and 1831.

PRODUCE OF THE IRON WORKS IN THE YEARS 1791 AND 1792.

	<i>Unwrought Iron. Ship-pds</i>	<i>Bar Iron. Ship-pds.</i>	<i>Cast Iron Wares. Ship-pds.</i>	<i>Forged Iron. Ship-pds.</i>
Bolvig,	3,192	2,843	647	
Barum,	3,102	2,464	1,474	
Dikkemark,	1,879	872	215	
England,	1,218	922	2	
Eidifors,	2,340	1,663	252	
Fossum,	1,469	1,151	1,152	59
Frocland,	2,302	1,436	1,046	4
Ulifoss,	2,990	2,480	982	29
Hassel,	1,678	1,209	601	
Lessoï,	—	50		
Mass,	2,201	959	491	
Mostmarken,	1,034	194	232	
Nass,	3,662	2,394	616	
Qudal,	2,037	1,954	426	22
Total in 1791,	28,604	20,591	8,086	114
1792,	26,502	20,483	8,586	1,693

IRON EXPORTED FROM NORWAY,*

In the years	1829,	1830,	1831.
Tons	3,164,	3,000,	2,516.

ART. V.—THE CURRENCY.

NEVER did a country more plainly exhibit the useful agency of money in quickening productive industry and facilitating commercial intercourse, as well as in paying debts, than the United States at this time. Here we see a people possessed of the same fertile soil and the same means of cultivating it, the same materials for manufacture and the same skill in using them, the same foreign markets, and ships, and seamen, which once diffused prosperity throughout the land, but which now, for want of a sound and a sufficient currency, cannot save the country from intense suffering and distress. In the midst of abundance and all the means of wealth, yet from this single want, useful enterprise is checked, the producer finds it difficult to sell, and the consumer to buy; the exchanges between town and country, and yet more between city and city, are impeded, and in short every movement of the social machine is clogged or arrested. It is no wonder then that money has so often been assimilated to the blood in the animal system; and assuredly if it is not indispensable to the existence of a commercial community, it is at least essential to its healthy and vigorous action.

The country suffers under the united evils of a depreciated and an insufficient currency. In three fourths of the states the local currency is, or lately was, from 5 to 20 per cent below the legal standard of value;

* Porter's Tables.

and bad as the currency is, there is not enough of it for more than the most urgent and indispensable occasions. Even in those states where the banks redeem their paper in specie, there is a deficiency of circulation which is felt by all classes of society, and these states, moreover, share in the mischiefs of the depreciation that exists in the other states.

The various schemes for supplying the country with a sound currency which have been suggested in congress, and out of it, show at once the lively sense of the disease, and the difficulty of finding a remedy for it. No less than five have been submitted to congress during its present session: that of the secretary of the treasury, Mr. Cushing's, Mr. Tallmadge's, Mr. Pope's, and Mr. Everett's, each of which claims to be exempt from the objections to which those which preceded it were supposed to be liable.

Of these, Mr. Pope's scheme of creating a bank of 75 millions, would effectually remedy the present deficiency of circulation; but it would cure this evil only by aggravating that of depreciation. It has, on this very account, been received with favor by the debtor and borrower classes.

We know that every country requires a certain amount of money in proportion to the products of its soil and industry, and the amount of its exchanges; in other words, in proportion to its wealth and its commerce, and which sooner or later it is likely to obtain, but which, either by casualties or its own errors it may sometimes exceed, as we did in 1836, or sometimes fall short of, as at the present time; and all attempts permanently to add to this amount in value must prove abortive, and would be injurious if practicable. If the money be gold and silver, all beyond the country's fair proportion, according to the country's wealth and wants, will be exported, precisely as an excess of tobacco, flour, or cotton beyond the home demand, is exported. If the money be of paper, the excess adjusts itself to the required value by depreciation. It would therefore be impossible to throw 75 millions of money into circulation, in addition to what we now have, without greatly lessening its value, to say nothing of the issues beyond the capital of the bank, which Mr. Pope's plan contemplates. Of the other parts of his project, by which he proposes that the general government should raise money enough on its own credit to pay off the debts of the individual states, it is unnecessary to dwell. Such a measure, as it seems to me, would be neither practicable nor wise, and though it were both, it would be beyond the constitutional powers of congress.

Of Mr. Forward's plan, as it has been condemned by both parties, and this circumstance has called forth several substitutes, it is also unnecessary to speak; let us then pass to those on which the judgment of congress has not yet been pronounced, and which have at least the approbation of committees in their favor.

Of these three, Mr. Cushing's and Mr. Tallmadge's agree in their principal features. They both profess to afford to the nation the benefits of a paper currency, but to secure the public from depreciation, they both propose to withdraw from circulation specie to the same amount as the paper thrown into it. The chief difference between them is, that Mr. Cushing's allows the exchequer, or government bank, to purchase under certain restrictions bills of exchange, as well as to sell them; but in Mr. Tallmadge's plan this power is in all cases prohibited.

But as these plans would not add a dollar to the currency, they offer no

remedy for one of the great evils under which the country is now laboring. They may, and no doubt would, greatly facilitate the machinery of the national treasury, and they might improve the means of remittance between the principal cities, but for the great body of the people they would do nothing. The amount of the relief they would afford to the country is pretty much the same as if a farmer had by some calamity lost half the wagons and teams by which he usually carried his crop to market, and a neighbor, by way of relieving him in his difficulties, were to offer to grease the wheels of the vehicles he had left. But we want wagons as well as grease, and no amount of the last will supply the place of the first. The difficulty is more in obtaining good money, under its present scarcity, than in remitting it from place to place, though that too is something. These plans therefore may be regarded as a cumbrous and expensive apparatus for turning gold and silver into paper.

Even the convenience which these plans promise to the merchants and others for remittance have probably been greatly overrated. It might be long before any considerable proportion of the amount of notes allowed to be issued could be thrown into circulation, and even then they might be confined principally to the large cities. We may judge of the proposed government paper, by the treasury notes now in circulation. They have most of the qualities which the former would possess, and we seldom see them beyond the precincts of our large towns.

Mr. Everett's plan, however, is free from the objection that has been made to the two others, for it proposes not only to create a uniform paper currency, but to add to its quantity. Seeing the true character of the disease, he would not only give us a sound circulation, but, by transfusion, give us more of it; and so far his plan is decidedly preferable to those which preceded it.

But all these schemes, comprehending Mr. Forward's, have one common feature which presents to republican jealousy an insurmountable objection, and which makes them objects of doubt and apprehension to the political economist. They all confer on the government the power of converting its own credit into currency, and of disbursing the money it had thus created; and when one recollects the shock which General Jackson's plan of a government bank gave to all his opponents, and to the more honest and reflecting part of his own supporters, nothing more strongly shows the present distress of the country, than the toleration with which plans so like his have been received.

Every plan of this character, by which the government is at once the issuer and the disburser of paper money, seems to me to be fraught with political danger, guard it as you may, and to be likely, moreover, to aggravate the evil for which it offers a temporary remedy. However restricted may be the exercise of this power, whenever the public is in difficulty—whenever it wants, or thinks it wants money, it will always find it easier to issue new paper than to lay new taxes; and in this way, an excess of currency will here, as it has done elsewhere, lead to depreciation. This is then one of the cases in which a wise people will distrust themselves; for such new issues will always appear to a majority of the people the least of two evils. The legislature, looking to its pole-star, public opinion, will be sure of support, and the united clamors of those who profit by depreciation, and of those who mistake an addition to the

currency of the country for an addition to its wealth, will be found to outweigh the few who are well-judging and sober-minded.

In the state of North Carolina, they retained, long after the revolution, a kind of paper money which had been in circulation before that period, and which having been first made current by a royal proclamation, obtained the popular name of "proc." It consisted of small bills of forty shillings and under, which having depreciated, and being otherwise inconvenient, the legislature determined to call them all in. The measure was however unacceptable to the body of the people, and intelligent patriotism had to struggle with popular prejudice and ignorance before these miserable substitutes for money were cancelled. And thus it will ever be; the inconvenience of a bad currency will be preferred by most men to the inconvenience of taxation.

Besides these too probable chances of depreciation, there is danger of an immediate abuse of their power by those who are intrusted with the creation and distribution of the government currency.

To some it may seem that this danger would be no greater than that which now exists, and has always existed with the keepers of the public funds. Undoubtedly, some risk must always be incurred. "Who are to watch the watchmen?" is a question which, if pushed to an extreme, admits of no satisfactory answer. But this inevitable danger is greatly increased by the proposed exchequer schemes. If those schemes fulfil their intended purpose, they will greatly increase the amount of money at all times in the treasury, and the temptation and danger of using the public money clandestinely will be augmented with its amount. The mischief too, may be greater, as well as more frequent. It is in rich banks, rich treasuries, and the most productive customhouses, that speculation has most frequently occurred, and it is only in these that it can be to a serious extent.

The danger is moreover enhanced by the new duties imposed on the keepers of the public money. Now they are required to pay it only according to certain forms that are strictly prescribed by law, and which have been taught by a long course of experience; but under these plans they would often be called to pay out money to private applicants, without the intervention of a warrant or order from their superior, and without any official notice of the transaction whatever, except what they themselves made. Who does not see that this state of things would present facilities and temptations to the use of the public money which do not now exist; and that when cashiers and tellers of banks are found to embezzle the money intrusted to them, though overlooked by a large body of directors, and watched by sharp-sighted stockholders, such frauds would be much more practicable with officers of the government, where there is far less *surveillance*, and where those to whom they are responsible have but the secondary interest of agents?

One of the chief securities against speculation in our public officers has been, that they are not allowed to keep in their hands large sums of money, but are required to deposit it in banks in the first instance, and then to transfer it to the account of the treasurer. The losses by unfaithful agents have indeed been considerable of late years, but they are small to what they would have been, if our collectors and receivers had been also bankers and brokers.

These financial objections seem to me insuperable. The political ones

are not inconsiderable. Without speculation or gross corruption, the agents of the government bank would always have the means of doing favors in selling drafts, or granting accommodations, which would give them great influence; and from the mode of their appointment and the nature of their responsibility, this influence could, with but tolerable address and discretion, be converted to the use of the executive. Of what importance is the provision, that the president could not remove these officers without the concurrence of the senate, when, with nine men out of ten, their selection and nomination for the public appointments they held, would be sufficient to make them the president's fast friends? When both the appointment and removal of these exchequer agents must begin with the president, it is against the whole current of human experience to suppose that the influence which this power gives him over the wills and actions of the persons appointed, will be greatly diminished by requiring the concurrence of the senate. The proposed check is certainly a wholesome one, and may, in some cases, prove beneficial, but let us not overrate it. If the concurrence of the senate in appointments, which has always been necessary, has not prevented the nominee's feelings of gratitude and dependence towards the president, why should their concurrence in the power of removal produce that effect? It assuredly would not. He will still be the alpha and the omega to whom office-seekers and office-holders will continue to look, as they ever have looked.

The power and influence thus acquired would but too probably be used for personal or party purposes. Does any man think that many of those acts which have of late years scandalized the moral sense of the community, the removal of faithful collectors and postmasters, because of their heterodoxy—the appointment of those who were unfit, but obsequious—the forgiveness of official delinquency, in consideration of political zeal—the 10 per cent levied on the incomes of federal officers, and reimbursed to them by an increase of salary; does any man, I ask, believe that these acts, and such as these, are peculiar to one party? By no means. The cause is to be found in the weakness and imperfection of man, and all parties, placed in the same circumstances, would soon or late fall into the same sinister course of action—the same abusive exercise of their power, for the sake of preserving it, and not seldom persuade themselves, by the sophistry of the Jesuits, that the supposed goodness of the end justified the vileness of the means.

From this blindness of human cupidity and love of power, the wisdom of the lawgiver consists in not exposing men to temptation, rather than in punishing them for yielding to it; and all these schemes expose the president, a numerous band of federal officers, and the people themselves, to temptations which they will not always be able to resist.

Upon the whole, then, I object to every form of a government bank of issue, because it would eventually give the country a depreciated currency; because it would increase the chances and aggravate the mischiefs of speculation; and because it would furnish to the executive power new means of corruption.

These mischiefs seem to be inseparable from a paper currency at once created and circulated by the government. If, therefore, we would avail ourselves of the superior credit of the general government, for the purpose of giving to the nation a uniform paper currency, exempt from the dan-

gers adverted to, we must separate the functions of making and of disbursing such paper.

This object, it seems to me, may be attained by the subjoined plan. I would, however, premise, that in submitting it to the public notice, I still think that it is inferior to a national bank, of whose benefits we have had the experience of forty years. Nor is this opinion at all shaken by the folly, the guilt, and the eventual failure of the Pennsylvania Bank of the United States, which was as unlike its predecessor as the convulsive spasms and distorted features of a galvanized corpse differ from the looks and actions of a living man.

As the best substitute for a national subject, I would propose—*

1. That the United States borrow on the credit of the public lands, as much specie as would support a paper currency, which would, without depreciation, be adequate to the wants of the nation.

2. That it then, by special commissioners, strike off notes payable to bearer; receivable and redeemable by the government; of denominations fitted for circulation, and to the amount previously determined by law.

3. That this amount of paper money be lent to the states, in proportion to their federal numbers, at an interest of 4 per cent per annum, on the following conditions, viz: that of the money to which each state was entitled under the distribution act, so much as was equal to the interest due from such state, should stand pledged from year to year to the general government; that the portion lent to each state should be assigned to such bank or banks as it should select, or should establish for the purpose; which banks should engage, under such sanctions as should be prescribed by an act of congress, to act as fiscal agents of the general government, and to circulate no paper of their own.

4. The notes thus created by the government, and put into circulation by state banks, to be redeemable in the city of New York, by directors appointed by the president, with the consent of the senate, and removeable only in the same way. Their functions to be limited to the business of exchanging specie for the government notes, and the re-conversion of notes into specie, and with no power to lend, discount, deal in bills of exchange, or receive deposits. The several amounts of the specie and notes in the bank (which together will almost amount to the original specie capital,) to be transmitted to the treasury department weekly, and to be counted once a month by inspectors appointed partly by the federal government, and partly by state authorities.

The advantages promised by the preceding plan, are believed to be these:

It will immediately supply every part of the union with a currency equal to specie; whereas the exchequer schemes would be slow, irregular, and always partial in their operation.

As the functions of the commissioners would cease as soon as the amount ordered by congress was struck off, there would be no danger of those undue expansions of the currency to which ordinary banks are exposed. And as more specie must be procured before there could be a new issue of notes, this previous condition would always prove a salutary and sufficient check against a further extension of the notes, unless the business of

* This plan has been already published in the *Washington Independent*, where it may be seen somewhat more in detail.

the country should plainly require it. Where an adequate amount of specie must first be obtained before there can be any new issue of notes, there is not much danger of an undue distension of the currency.

The distribution of the money thus added to the circulation will be made by those who, having the requisite personal knowledge, are most likely to make it most safely and beneficially. With few exceptions, the state banks generally do this part of their duty with fidelity and ability.

The plan would make no permanent addition to the influence or patronage of the executive, except in the appointment of the directors of the bank, who, exercising no discretion, would have less power than the superintendent or the treasurer of the mint.

A similar remark may be made as to speculation. The counting the money once a month, by persons responsible to different authorities, would afford the best security the case admits of against fraud or embezzlement. The simplicity of their duty too, having no complicated account to scrutinize, would be favorable to its faithful execution.

Lastly: Supposing the amount issued to be double the amount of specie provided, the United States would gain by the plan the difference between the interest it would receive and that it would pay, which might be as much as 4 per cent on the sum borrowed. The state banks would gain the difference between the 4 per cent they would pay and the 6 or 6½ per cent they would receive from their customers; and more than all, the people would gain by the spring that would be thus given to every species of profitable enterprise and productive industry.

ART. VI.—COMMERCE OF THE LAKES.

It is somewhat extraordinary that the public mind has not been heretofore more directed to the commerce which is rapidly growing up on the great lakes of our country. Stretching along one of the most important agricultural sections of our territory, comprising the states of New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, and the territory of Wisconsin, besides an extensive tract of domain at present but partially colonized, and furnishing the main outlet for their products upon the eastern side, they constitute one of the most extensive fields of inland navigation upon the face of the globe. It is our design to lay open the most prominent facts connected with this branch of our domestic commerce, as the great lakes will in future time constitute the grand avenue through which will be transported the wealth of the northwestern grain harvests to their eastern markets.

The magnitude of the lakes is a feature which cannot fail to strike those who are accustomed to regard the magnificent scenery of our republic with patriotic pride. Commencing with Lake Erie, we find it furnishing a prominent sea-port in the state of New York, at the city of Buffalo, a fitting head of this commercial chain. Passing from that point, it washes the boundaries of Pennsylvania and Ohio, affording safe harbors to the cities of Erie, Cleveland, and Sandusky, as well as other minor ports, and expanding a surface of about two hundred and sixty-five miles long, and of sixty-three miles in its widest part, terminates at the beautiful islands

which cluster around the mouth of the river Detroit. Passing up the Detroit river, we soon reach Lake St. Clair, the smallest of the chain, yet presenting upon its borders a picturesque scenery, marked by tranquillity and repose; the fading memorials of original French colonization, the rural cottage and the orchard, the cattle sometimes grazing upon its banks, and the evidences of the struggle between rude nature and enterprising man, in the campaign of civilization. This last lake, named by La Salle from the day on which he entered the river, is only about thirty miles long and twenty-eight broad, yet sufficiently deep to afford navigation to the largest class of ships. We now reach the river St. Clair, a picturesque stream, maintaining an average breadth of about three quarters of a mile, and soon arrive at Lake Huron, which seems like an ocean set in the forest, and in an expanse that appears to support the base of the sky; the area of this lake being two hundred and forty miles long, and its breadth about two hundred and twenty miles in its broadest part. Its shores are comparatively barren and desolate, with scarcely a monument to show that man has advanced upon the domain. Here a straggling vessel ploughs the waste of waters, and there a steamship shows that the mechanical philosophy of the nineteenth century has brought it into subjection and conquered its winds and waves. The canoe of the Canadian voyager is seldom seen, although it is well known that the fur trade is carried on to a considerable extent both upon its British and American shores. The Bay of Saginaw, an indentation of the shore line of sixty miles deep and thirty broad, is studded with islets, and furnishes access to the city of Saginaw, which lies at no great distance.

Crossing Lake Huron the island of Mackinaw soon appears in view, a high bluff which is no less remarkable for the beauty of its position, standing like a fortress amid the watery realm, than for its historic associations. Long a prominent depot of the fur trade, and the theatre of some of its most interesting vicissitudes, it now forms a favorite rendezvous of the Indian tribes in the vicinity, and affords a safe harbor for the steamboats which ply regularly during the season of navigation from the state of New York to Chicago. This island is about nine miles in circumference, being at its highest elevation about three hundred feet above the level of the lake, and abounds in many natural monuments, which seldom fail to gratify the interest of the curious. Arriving at the Sault Ste. Marie, and advancing through a passage of about fifteen miles, we come to Lake Superior, the father of the lakes, stretching out its watery plain over a surface of about three hundred and sixty miles in length, according to the received estimate, and in a breadth of one hundred and forty. Although of course shut out from direct commerce by the obstruction of the Falls of St. Mary, which however is soon to be remedied by the construction of a ship canal around them, it is navigated by a few small vessels which are employed in the fur trade; this, together with the lake fishery, being the only species of traffic that can be carried on with profit upon it, from the uncultivated condition of the bordering territory, a tract that abounds in mineral wealth, if we may judge from very recent geological investigations. Green Bay, an indentation of Lake Michigan, is soon met on our approach to that lake. This latter lake, it is probably well known, extends upon the western boundary of the peninsula of Michigan, in a surface of three hundred and thirty miles long, and seventy miles broad, presenting upon its shores the ports of Chicago and Michigan City, Milwaukee,

New Buffalo, St. Joseph, and Grand Haven, as well as other interesting points of the lake commerce, in the several bordering states.

Lake Ontario, the eastern part of this chain, it is well known lies nearest to the Atlantic, and borders a considerable portion of the territory of New York, having as its outlet to the Atlantic the river St. Lawrence, which flows from its eastern extremity to the distance of one thousand miles before reaching the sea. Its length is one hundred and seventy-two miles, and its extreme breadth fifty miles, being navigable throughout its whole extent. From the importance of the territory, both on the British and American shores, its trade is now considerable, and the numerous sail vessels and splendid steamships which navigate it, earn valuable profits in the commerce which is carried on between the different points of its banks. Upon its Canadian borders we find the city of Toronto, the capital of Upper Canada, and also the towns of Queenston and Niagara; and upon the American side the towns of Oswego, Genesee, and Sacketts Harbor. From the fact that it possesses a direct communication with the Atlantic, in a northerly direction, through the St. Lawrence, and in a southerly direction, through the river Hudson, by the Erie canal; it may be considered from its eastern position, and from the wealth of the territory that it washes, one of the most important links in the chain.

We have sketched this brief outline of the great lakes, for the purpose of exhibiting the magnitude and importance of the theatre upon which the lake commerce is destined to act. Constituting, with a few obstructions that are in the progress of being removed, a continuous line of water communication, extending from New York and penetrating the interior forests of our republic for two thousand miles, the outlet of the products of a very valuable portion of our continent, they exhibit one of the most marked features of the country.

Prior to the year 1759, the entire territory bordering the western lakes was the claimed domain of the French, and their waters constituted the principal channel through which circulated the fur trade that was carried on from the earliest colonization of Canada, throughout the neighboring shores, a source of occupation to the French colonists of that region, and of wealth to the French empire. After that territory passed to England, and the Hudson Bay Company extended its jurisdiction over the domain that had been before occupied by the French, this trade continued to be carried on over the same territory and through the same lakes, until the country was transferred to our own government; and the advancing colonization of the United States, and the progress of our own agricultural production and commerce, materially changed the aspect of affairs throughout the greater portion of these inland seas. The growth of the lake commerce, from the period since the fur trade constituted its most distinguishing feature, will doubtless be interesting to our readers; and we propose, accordingly, to give a condensed historic sketch of its advance, for which we are indebted to J. L. Barton, Esq., that gentleman having from laborious investigation collected the matter for a report, designed to be presented by the topographical bureau to the general government. In this report, he remarks:

Prior to the year 1832, the whole commerce west of Detroit was confined almost exclusively to the carrying up provisions and goods for the Indian trade, and bringing back in return the furs and other matters collected by that trade for an eastern market, and the freighting up of provisions and supplies for the troops at the different garrisons established

around the upper lakes. All of which furnished a limited business for a few schooners.

The breaking out of the Black Hawk war in 1832, first brought out a knowledge of the richness of the soil and salubrity of the climate of northern Illinois and Indiana, and the territory of Wisconsin, and exhibited the commanding position of Chicago, (hitherto an isolated place,) for commercial business. This war being closed that same year, and peace being re-established in all those parts, a strong emigration set in that direction the next year, and the rich prairies of that country began to fill with a vigorous, hardy, and enterprising population; and from that time, only the short period of eight years, may it in truth be said that there has been any commerce west of Detroit.

As early as the year 1819, the steamboat *Walk-in-the-Water*, the only steamboat then on Lake Erie, made a trip as far as Mackinaw, to carry up the American Fur Company's goods, and annually repeated the same voyage until she was wrecked on the beach, near Buffalo, in the month of November, 1821. Her place was then supplied by the steamboat *Superior*, (now the ship *Superior*,) which came out in 1822. This boat also made similar voyages to Mackinaw, which was then the *ultima thule* of western navigation.

In 1826 and '27, the majestic waters of Lake Michigan were first ploughed by steam, a boat having that year made an excursion with a party of pleasure to Green Bay. These pleasure excursions were annually made by two or three boats until the year 1832, when the necessities of the government requiring the transportation of troops and supplies for the Indian war then existing, steamboats were chartered by the government and made their first appearance at Chicago, then an open roadstead, in which they were exposed to a full sweep, by northerly storms, for the whole length of Lake Michigan; and even at this day the slight improvement made at that port, in a partially constructed harbor, affords them but a limited protection.

In 1833, there were employed 11 steamboats, which cost the sum of \$360,000; they carried to and from Buffalo and other ports on the lakes, that season, 61,485 passengers, and with the freight they carried, received for the whole the sum of \$229,212 69.

Of the passengers carried, 42,956 were taken from Buffalo, bound west; the remaining 18,529 passengers were all landed at Buffalo, excepting some few distributed at the different ports along the lake.

There were made that season, *three* trips to the upper lakes, two to Chicago, and one to Green Bay, the amount of receipts for which was, \$4,355 93.

By way of contrasting the time employed in making trips to Chicago in those days and the present, it may be stated, that one of the boats left Buffalo on the 23d of June, at 9 P. M., and returned on the 18th day of July, at 10 P. M. The other left Buffalo the 20th day of July, at 4 P. M., and returned August the 11th.

In 1834, the association formed by the steamboats, the previous year, was continued, and was composed of 18 boats, which cost in their construction something over \$600,000—seven new boats having come out that season. The whole amount received by all the boats for freight and passengers that year, was \$238,565 95. During this year *two* trips were made to Green Bay, and *three* to Chicago, and the amount received by the

boats was \$6,272 65. The greater part of this sum was for business west of Detroit, as the trips to Chicago were made by a boat running from that place to Chicago.

It will be observed that the aggregate business of 1834, exceeds but little that of 1833, notwithstanding the great increase of boats; but as the cholera prevailed extensively around the lakes that year, it made a sensible difference in the business.

In 1836, the steamboat association formed in 1833, was dissolved; the number of steamboats increased, as did the business. There is no way, without almost endless labor, of determining the amount of business done, or the capital employed; but as speculation was rife, and bank bills plenty, and everybody getting rich, a greatly increased business, to the west, took place that year, both of passengers and merchandise.

The same difficulty is found for the years of 1837 and '38, with regard to the number of boats, and capital employed, and the gross amount of business done in those years. But as a great revulsion in the trade of the country had taken place, and a general suspension of specie payments by the banks occurred in May, 1837, a less number, or at least no greater number of passengers crossed the lakes in either 1837 or '38, than in 1836; and a great decrease of goods going west, also had a tendency to diminish the business of those years. In all probability, could the amount of business of either of those years be ascertained, it would prove to be less than what was done in 1836.

In 1839, the owners of steamboats finding the number of boats, and the amount of capital employed in the business (many new boats having been built during the season of speculation,) so much greater than the business required, that if all the boats were kept running, they would consume themselves and bring the owners in debt, about the first of June, in that year, formed a new association, by which part of the boats were run, and a part laid up.

The increase of business to Chicago, and ports west of Detroit, by this time had become so large, that a regular line of eight boats was formed to run from Buffalo to Chicago, making a trip in every sixteen days. The increase in the business was by emigrants, with their household furniture and farming implements, and others going west, and not from any freight from Lake Michigan, as the rapidly increasing population of that section of country rather required produce to be imported into, than exported from it.

As the association formed this year among the steamboats, did not embrace all the boats on the lake, and as it was formed after much business had been done, the total amount of business done by steam that year cannot be determined with any degree of certainty; in amount it greatly exceeded any former one.

In 1840 the steamboat association was kept up, and embraced more boats than the one of 1839. This year the number of boats on the lake was 48, of various sizes from 150 to 750 tons burden, and cost in their construction about \$2,200,000; a part of these boats were run, and a part laid up. The aggregate earnings of the running boats this year, for passengers and freight carried both ways, amounted to about the sum of \$725,523 44; this amount includes the earnings (estimated) of several boats that did not belong to the association, and added to the amount earned by the associated boats. Eight boats ran regularly this season from

Buffalo to Chicago, making 16 day trips, and one for a time from Mackinaw to Green Bay, and occasionally to the Sault Ste. Marie; the aggregate earnings of which amounted to \$302,757 93. Two thirds of this may be properly considered as business west of Detroit, and is \$201,838 62.

This amount of business is made up (with the exception of twelve or fourteen thousand dollars paid by government for the transportation of troops,) by passengers and freight of merchandise going to the different towns on the borders of Lake Michigan, and passengers and produce, of which latter there was a good deal this year from the same quarter.

In 1841, the same arrangement existed among the steamboats, and included nearly all the steamboat interest on the lakes. The boats were run in the same manner as in 1840, with this exception, that six boats of the largest class ran from Buffalo to Chicago, making 15 day trips, and one to Green Bay a part of the season, making a trip in 14 days. These boats have made during this season 525 trips from Buffalo, of which 444 were made on Lake Erie to Toledo, Perrysburgh, River Raisin, and Detroit; and 81 to the upper lakes, of which 70 were made to Chicago, and the other 11 to Green Bay and the Sault Ste. Marie—and to make these trips, have run between 440 and 450,000 miles. In addition to which a small boat has run daily during the season from Buffalo to Dunkirk and Barcelona, and occasionally to Erie.

The entire earnings of the running boats this year, ascertained in the same way as in 1840, amount to the sum of \$767,132 27. The Chicago and Green Bay boats earned of this amount the sum of \$301,303 29.

From the increased quantities of agricultural products brought down from the shores of Lake Michigan this season, and many tons of lead and shot from the mines in that section of country, now for the first time, in any considerable quantity, seeking a market by the lake route; and the large increase of fashionable travel from New Orleans to the northern states, during the hot season of the summer months, having selected this route in consequence of its being more speedy, less expensive, more healthy than the lower route, and affording the traveller a view of the magnificent scenery of the islands and shores of the great lakes; it is estimated that three fourths of the business done by the Chicago and Green Bay boats this year, are made from commercial enterprise west of Detroit; and as there was but little government transport this year, the Michigan lake is allotted, of this trade, \$226,352 46.

So far as steamboats are concerned, owing to the entire want of safe harbors around Lake Michigan to afford them protection, their whole business is now confined to the western shore of that lake. During the past season, in mid-summer, two or three boats made each a trip to St. Josephs and Michigan City; yet it may be remarked that Milwaukee, Racine, Southport, and Chicago are the places where they have regularly done business.

The number of sail vessels owned on Lake Erie and the upper lakes, is estimated at 250—varying in size from 80 to 350 tons burden. The smaller ones are employed in wood, lumber, and stone business, and confine their operations principally to rivers and short trips; while the large and more numerous class are employed in freighting produce, merchandise, and other property, the whole length of the lakes.

The cost of these vessels varies from \$1,000 to \$14,000; assuming \$5000 as a fair average, it will be seen that there is employed in sail

vessels, a capital of \$1,250,000. These vessels will earn annually from \$500 to \$6,500 each, which, averaging them all at \$3,000, will show an amount of business done, of \$750,000. Very many thousands of dollars of this business are made from freights west of Detroit, and some sort of opinion may be formed of its amount, when it is known that a great number of the largest sized vessels employed on the lakes, are engaged in that distant trade.

To arrive at the amount of tonnage of steam and sail vessels, would require the consulting of the customhouse books at every point of entry around the lakes, and would occupy much time to obtain it.

A full view of the whole commerce of the great western lakes cannot be shown without adverting to a foreign or auxiliary trade of great and growing importance; namely, the business done by vessels owned on both sides of lake Ontario, which pass through the Welland canal, and push their trade to the extreme end of Lake Michigan. From a table of this trade published in the Montreal Gazette, a comparative statement of the principal articles that passed through the Welland canal to the 31st Oct. 1840 and 1841, shows as follows:

	In 1840.	In 1841.
Flour,	186,864 bls.	193,137
Beef and Pork,	14,889 do.	24,195
Salt,	153,031 do.	149,337
Boards,	1,802,622 feet.	3,118,122
Sq. Timber,	880,107 do.	1,151,436
Pipe Staves,	885,704	1,347,839
W. I. Staves,	765,912	1,377,225
Wheat,	1,720,659 bush.	1,212,458
Indian Corn,	27,088 do.	90,158
Merchandise,	2,769½ tons.	3,718
<hr/>		
Tolls received,	£18,037 3 1½	£18,583 9 7½
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Schooners,	1,863	1,895
Scows,	700	972
Tonnage,	202,282	247,911

The amount of freight on this property of that portion which was grown on the American side of the waters, and transported on Lake Erie and the upper lakes, will exceed the sum of \$150,000; from which it will be seen that the aggregate commercial business on these great lakes, amounts now annually to the very large sum of \$1,700,000. And, with the exception of Lake Erie, which is partially furnished with harbors, created by individual enterprise and appropriations by congress, the upper lakes are almost entirely destitute of these indispensable requisites for the safety of commercial interests enjoyed in that great and growing trade.

With here and there a lighthouse above Detroit, every thing remains almost in the same state it was found by the commercial pioneers, when they first broke their way through Lake Michigan.

The rapidly increasing population west, the richness of the soil, the easy access to the mineral regions in Wisconsin, the new communications opening in that country, and the increasing demand for larger quantities of manufactured goods from the old states, must satisfy any one that this

commerce must annually go on increasing ; thus constantly strengthening the claim every section of the western country connected with the great lakes has upon the liberality and justice of congress for appropriations to build harbors, construct lighthouses, and to remove in some way the impediment to navigation over the flats in Lake St. Clair—and thereby afford protection and safety to the lives and property engaged in this valuable and important business.

From the want of harbors on Lake Michigan, there has been recently, and there is annually, a great sacrifice of life and property. Ten or twelve large vessels have this fall, (1841,) met with serious disasters in that region ; some have been driven ashore partially wrecked, with their cargoes slightly injured, others have been made complete wrecks, their cargoes seriously damaged if not altogether made valueless, while others have foundered in the lake and been totally lost with their entire crews and cargoes, in consequence of there being no harbors to which they could resort, for safety and protection.

The necessary future growth of the lake commerce must be obvious to those who will take the trouble to examine the resources of the territory which border these inland seas, and the enterprise which is now acting and increasing from year to year in that portion of the country. Emigration has been of late years fast pressing upon the new lands of the northwest and laying open broad tracts of cultivated fields upon the ruins of the wilderness. Prosperous villages and even cities have been fast springing up on the most prominent points of its shores, and harbors indent their coasts at widely separated points, that we trust may receive the increased attention of the general government. The agricultural and mineral products of the bordering states that will be increased in importance as population advances towards the west, must in future time swell the trade of the lakes to an enormous amount. At present the emigration from the east furnishes no inconsiderable an item in the sum of lake navigation. A great portion of the merchandise required in the northwestern markets, it is well known, finds its channel of transportation from the east through the lakes. The thousands of colonists who are advancing to that region, seeking comfortable freeholds for themselves and their families, with agricultural implements and utensils of all sorts, are provided, in the numerous steamships and vessels which ply upon their surface, with the most commodious means of transportation ; and the return freights, in the grain staples of the northwest, must be increased in proportion to the amount of this emigration. What resources for the commerce of the lakes are furnished by the rich grain-growing soil bordering its shores, the wheat lands of Ohio, Michigan, and Indiana, and the lead mines of Illinois, Iowa, and Wisconsin ! Is it not reasonable to suppose that the more than sixteen millions of bushels of wheat that are now yielded by the state of Ohio, the four millions of Indiana, the three millions of Illinois, the two millions of Michigan, and the eight millions of pounds of lead produced in Illinois, and the fifteen millions of pounds of the same metal furnished by Wisconsin, according to the last census, will soon be quadrupled in amount, all contributing to the commerce of the lakes ?

We would here advert to the subject of the improvement of the facilities of lake commerce as a topic involving, in a high degree, the prosperity of that portion of our country. The constitutional question regarding the

right of the general government to aid local enterprises, does not, in our judgment, apply to the inland seas of our own country. It would seem that the vast field of navigation spread out by the lake waters, may properly be considered a national concern, inasmuch as they embrace an extent of inland sea-coast, which is as necessary to be protected in its interests, so far as all public purposes are concerned, as the coast of the Atlantic. Their shores extend for thousands of miles into the interior, (the total length of coast formed by their margins being four thousand miles,) exposing a long line of our own territory to the inroads of a foreign nation, which occupies the entire domain throughout its whole extent upon the one side. As the ocean is deemed the highway of nations, the northwestern seas may be properly regarded the national highway of the republic, so far as their very great extent and their national importance are concerned—common to the governments of Great Britain and the United States. This doctrine has been assumed and officially acted upon by congress in the several acts passed for the construction of lighthouses, breakwaters, and other public improvements upon the American shores. Independently of the line of American coast which they expose, the resources of the numerous states and territories which they border, embracing a most opulent portion of the republic, certainly render them an object of national concern. The products of the bordering region will doubtless furnish a no inconsiderable portion of the agricultural and mineral wealth of the country, either consumed at home or exported abroad, thus adding to the solid wealth of the nation and augmenting our national revenue. The numerous ports by which they are indented are not only depots of trade but important points of shipment, and they will doubtless, as new public works progress, leading to their banks, constitute the sole outlet for the products of the interior of the bordering territory. The frequent loss of lives which has occurred by the want of proper means of shelter for the rigged vessels and steamships which ply upon them during the occurrence of storms, furnish additional motive for the aid of the general government. We would ask any far-seeing and benevolent man whether the aid directed to the improvement of lake navigation would be thrown away, the necessary consequence of which is to render their commerce safe, to furnish additional means and motives for production and export, and to establish permanent bulwarks of national defence? Would not the formation of harbors, roadsteads, piers, and breakwaters, and the deepening of shoals, tend to protect the agriculture as well as the commerce of the country?

In order to exhibit the increasing importance of the lake commerce we subjoin an official statement, which was made in 1841, by W. G. Williams, a captain of the corps of topographical engineers, exhibiting the arrival and departure of steamboats and vessels, the clearances, tolls upon the canal, the amount expedited eastward by canal, and the amount received by canal and shipped to the west, for a series of years, commencing in 1815, and ending in 1840, at the single port of Buffalo:

The following table does not include domestic manufactures, salt, &c., including which, the amount received and shipped would be very much greater than the amount below given. For instance, the aggregate received by canal and shipped west in 1840 amounted to 78,270 tons, being nearly four times the amount of merchandise and furniture only.

Years.	Arrivals and de- partures of steam- boats and vessels.	Clearances.	Tolls. Dollars.	Amount expedi- ted eastward by canal.	Amount received by canal and ship- ped to the west.
1815	64				
1816	80				
1817	100				
1818	100				
1819	96				
1820	120				
1821	150				
1822	200				
1823	236				
1824	286				
1825	359			<i>Tons.</i>	
1826	418	1,100	19,558	5,134	
1827	972	1,406	26,293	8,621	
1828	1,520	1,880	32,128	.	
1829	1,800	1,599	25,923		
1830	2,052	2,066	48,923		
1831	2,400	2,424	65,980		
1832	2,560	2,220	58,136		<i>Tons.</i>
1833	2,730	2,772	73,695		18,598
1834	2,975	4,008	91,018		21,450
1835	3,280	5,175	105,863	32,424	23,140
1836	3,550	5,018	157,536	45,052	35,809
1837	3,955	4,755	128,581	44,157	27,567
1838	3,895	4,970	202,890	76,458	35,586
1839	3,955	5,013	*259,183	156,164	31,887
1840	4,061	4,851	*376,417	177,607	20,643

The statement furnished by a committee of the common council to this office is so much to the purpose, as bearing upon the continued increase of trade up to this very time, that it is submitted as an extract.

"The increase of business in the spring of 1841 has also been much greater than that of any preceding year.

"The number of arrivals and departures of steamboats and vessels up to June 1, amounted to 626, not including the steamboat 'Star,' which plies daily between this port and Chippewa.

"The following are the principal articles received during that period :

Flour, . . .	bbls. 158,552	Wheat, . . .	bushels, 140,102
Pork, . . .	" 49,763	Corn and Oats, . . .	" 11,016
Fish, . . .	" 761	Ashes, . . .	casks, 2,532
Whiskey, . . .	" 5,838	Hams, &c., . . .	" 2,451
Butter and lard, . . .	kegs, 15,066	Hides, . . .	9,117
Brooms, . . .	doz. 2,545	Staves, . . .	464,000

"Among the articles forwarded down the canal from this place were the following :

Barrels of flour,	167,273
Barrels of pork,	48,368
Bushels of wheat,	90,129

* Includes tolls received at Black Rock.

"The amount of tolls received at Buffalo office alone, from April 24th to June 1st, was \$88,707 14, being an increase of 33 per cent over the amount received for the same period in 1839.

"At this enormous ratio of increase is the great west pouring her rich products to the Atlantic markets, through the medium of Buffalo harbor and the Erie canal."

The position of the lake territory in relation to the east, causes this line of our inland navigation to be the connecting chain between the commerce of the northwest and that of the Atlantic states; and although it was not until the year 1818, that this commerce had assumed so important a character as to call the public attention to the construction of lighthouses upon their American shores, those lights have been gradually increasing, and other improvements have been commenced and partially carried out for the protection of the shipping. The numerous harbors upon their banks are many of them obstructed by sandbars and exposed to a violent and dangerous surf during the period of high winds, and the attention of the government has been accordingly more particularly directed to the construction of lighthouses and breakwaters, and the removal of sandbars.

About the period in which the attention of the government was directed to the erection of lighthouses upon the lakes, it was called to the construction of lake harbors. Works of this character of considerable expense have been built up at the towns of Chicago, Michigan City, Milwaukee, and Green Bay, upon Lake Michigan, as well as at Detroit, Cleveland, Sandusky, Ashtabula, Portland, and Dunkirk, upon Lake Erie, and at Genesee and Sacketts Harbor, upon Lake Ontario, some of which are now in progress. Important improvements have also been made through the same source at the ports of Buffalo and Erie, and at Oswego, at the mouth of the Seneca river, upon the southern shore of the Ontario lake. There are other points upon the upper lakes, which, from the growing commerce of that region, doubtless require additional aid. The last report of the bureau of topographical engineers, exhibits many important facts, demonstrating the actual condition of the several lake ports, going to show the very great advantages resulting from these improvements from the growing commerce of the lakes. A partial survey of this portion of our inland waters has been already made under the auspices of the general government, and the result of the report, to which we have alluded, has given us the most prominent facts connected with the position of the several lake harbors, their relative importance regarding the products of the interior, and the amount of their exports. The growing value of this field of our commercial enterprise is beginning to press itself upon the public mind. The emigration of the country has been for the last few years advancing westward to an unexampled extent. The bordering territory, from the character of the soil, and its various resources, is already the most productive agricultural section of the nation, and the expansive field of commerce spread out by the lake waters is in all respects proportioned to the magnitude and fertility of the domain which they adorn.

ART. VII.—MORALS OF TRADE.

NUMBER FIVE.

IN a former paper we attempted to show, that a man is not bound, even by the law of honor, to pay debts from which he has received a discharge. And it may be added, that a merely legal discharge would amount to nothing if the debtor still continued liable in the court of honor ; a court, whose unserved processes and executions, would as effectually bind and cripple an honorable man as any prison wall in the land. Has this view of the matter been considered by those who hold the opposite opinion ? If this statement be valid, and a man is bound by the laws of honor to pay such debts as we have referred to, there can be no discharge, and it is empty speech to talk of it. The discharge from the debt discharges the debtor entirely, or not at all. For if the honorable man ever recover his position he will pay his old debts, by his own principles, if it be just that he should do so ; and while he remains poor, of course no law can compel him to pay that which he does not possess. But to say that a man is guilty of dishonorable conduct who does not pay his old debts when he is able, and that the law cannot compel him to do so, would seem to imply that the law of the land is widely opposed to the law of honor. But then it may be said that the law regards the debtor as well as the creditor ; and besides it must be remembered that, in the class of cases we have referred to, it is optional with the creditor whether the discharge be given or not. The law but holds him to his own agreement. If he expected to be paid under certain circumstances, it might be stipulated in the discharge.

But, moreover, let it be understood that the principle we advocate applies only to cases where the discharge is voluntary on the part of the creditor, and we are guilty of no contradiction in saying, that the debtor is bound by the law of honor to pay, when he is able, debts from which he has been released by such a law as the "bankrupt law." Is there opposition here between the law of the land and the law of honor ? Not so. The bankrupt law contemplates not individuals. It is an act for national prosperity—oil applied to the commercial machinery of a great people. It cannot, in the nature of the case, regard the particular character of individual cases. Like the rain from heaven, it falls upon the just and the unjust. It reposes some confidence in the debtor as well as the creditor. We trust the distinction is apparent between the operation of such a law and the voluntary discharge of the debtor by his creditor.

Not only the late bankrupt law, but all enactments, by which a man is released from pecuniary obligation, against the will and in spite of the efforts of his creditor, by no means free him from an honorary obligation to meet the demand when he is able ; for laws and acts of government are general in their nature, and may be opposed to equity in some special instances. It is only Supreme wisdom that can frame laws and principles to act without exception, and with such a nice adjustment of parts, that no one can interfere with another. The bankrupt law may give opportunity, in one case in a thousand, for fraud ; it may positively harm one man while it benefits a million ; and still this injured person is part of a great community, and in time he may receive back a part, perhaps the whole, of what he has lost, by a higher general prosperity. But even if it is so, the law is good and just ; not perfect in its operation, for what human law is ?

There are additional reasons for an opinion, we are aware, much at variance with many minds. The writer pretends not in these papers to utter certain truth; but these are some of the arguments by which such an opinion is supported, and it is hoped that those who differ in opinion upon any of the points assumed, will do the public the service of stating them; that by a comparison of opinions, or rather arguments, the truth may be arrived at. How much more kindness and gracefulness would characterize public discussions, if we were in the habit of stating our opinions modestly, with the concession that they may be erroneous? Instead of saying, "It is so—it cannot be otherwise," words which can only be used in mathematical and experimental science, let it rather be said, "It seems so to me, for these reasons." For there is nothing which so blinds the understanding as the passions. Bigotry begets bigotry; assertion is answered by assertion; argument and reason are too tame, too feeble, to express the torrent of feeling which fills us. We would resort to violence if we could, and hurl our words, like flaming thunderbolts, in the faces of our opponents. In this heated contest, the object for which we began to strive is forgotten; victory is now the object, to be obtained by any means. As two nations at war, for mutual injuries, inflicted far from the spot where the contending armies meet, seem to be fighting for the territory which is the scene of the combat, the acquisition or loss of which is a matter of no moment to either; so in our arguments do we often lose sight of the original ground we occupied, and become anxious for a petty victory, which may discommode our adversary, without benefiting ourselves. Thus has it too often been in religious and political controversies.

The next question we wish to consider is, whether there ought to be any such paper known in trade as "honorary paper," called so, to distinguish it from other pecuniary obligations, given over the signature; paper which, in any event, must be paid to the full amount of the obligation, while in case of failure, the common circulating paper of a firm comes in for a certain percentage only? Now the rule or custom as it exists among merchants has always seemed to the writer radically wrong.

But let us first inquire what this "honorary paper" is, what entitles a common note of hand to this name? It is thus: A firm finds itself in a sinking condition; cannot meet its demands, and goes to a broker or brother merchant and borrows money to keep alive its credit. This money is obtained by a full exposure of the state of its affairs, and with an assurance that it shall be paid in any event. The borrowing firm does fail; and this money is paid to the full amount, perhaps with exorbitant interest; and this is called "honorary paper."

To look at the case exactly as it is, this is the version of it. A knows B to be bankrupt, or nearly so; without aid he cannot live a day. Under these circumstances A lends B money, to enable him to keep up an appearance of soundness. By the use of this money B goes on and buys goods of C and D, who think him as sound as ever. Perhaps B takes desperate steps to retrieve himself; rushes wildly into speculation, and, by the aid A has afforded him, involves hundreds in his own ruin.

A looks on calmly and unconcernedly at the result. He is safe by the laws and customs of trade. He has reliance enough upon the factitious honor of B to feel sure of the payment of his claim. But in fact he is the last person who ought to be paid in strict justice; for he has been a kind of endorser of B to C and D. By this money he has furnished him he has

aided B to deceive many men ; not that he has been engaged in any swindling operation, but the result of such contrivances is, that many men are deceived ; furnish goods and money from the appearance of B's affairs—an appearance which is not real, because in fact that money in the bank or those goods in his store are pledged to A by the laws of honor.

And why is it not right that A should be paid to the full amount of his claim, if such was the engagement of B ? Simply by that maxim of law and justice, "that no man shall take advantage of his own wrong." Whatever may have been the motive of A in lending B the money, (it may have been friendship and not interest money,) he has become the abettor of mischief, and has no right to claim exemption from loss. The fact that A knows, by private confidence, the state of B's affairs, gives him in equity no claim. C and D, creditors of B, believe him sound ; and did they not think him so, they might secure themselves at any moment. They have confidence in B also, but it is a trust founded upon his general credit, a generous reliance in his honor as a man and a merchant. Now the fact that they are deceived in this trust, deceived, too, by the connivance of a third party, by no rule of justice makes their claim inferior to his who so aids in the deception.

But suppose that it is only friendship that prompts the loan on the part of A ; this alters not the case. All that can be said of it, then, is, that it is not so bad as if he had lent B the money at an exorbitant rate. We must not suffer our minds to be turned from justice by any romance of feeling. Friendship is a stronger feeling among some men than love of money. Still purer would be the case, if regard for the wife and children of B had prompted the loan ; and the case might be made better and better by peculiar circumstances, and yet it would be on the side of wrong. We say it is radically unjust, and though it has an appearance of justice, the morality is extremely superficial that supports such a custom.

Perhaps we have stated an extravagant case. We intended to do so. We are not charging such acts upon merchants generally ; far from it ; but whenever such agreements do take place, in any degree, they are contrary to strict justice and fairness. The case of one man lending money to another by having a knowledge of his affairs, is not widely different from an endorsement of his note. If A endorses B's note to C and D, and he fails, how is it then ? What is the effect of this endorsement ? Why, it enables B to purchase goods of C and D. And what is the effect of this private loan ? Why, it enables B to purchase goods of C and D also. Where, we ask, is the immense difference of the two cases ? One is open and the other is private. Both go to establish, and, in a measure, assume the credit of B. He is dependent upon A ; acts by his means. Now if A knows his affairs to be bad and dangerous, and wishes him to have the chance of retrieving himself, he has no right to have the gratification of such a result, whether it be in the shape of friendship or money, by shifting the risk off his own shoulders and putting it upon C and D. His object is to assist B, and it may be that by this loan he does assist him indeed, and enables him to ride out the storm of some commercial tempest, and no one is ever the wiser for the matter. But we are contending for principles, not for any particular case. There is a risk somewhere in lending B this money, and he who enjoys the advantage should assume the risk. No one certainly will dispute this. Suppose that in past days A himself has

been in difficulty and had his dark hours, and B was the friend that served him by a confidential loan. How unjust! how unkind! says some one, in A, should he not return the favor! So say we also; but we must also add, that if B fails A should prove his gratitude by bearing a part of the loss.

But let us take another case of a smaller and more common kind, which involves the same principle. A young man in the country is assisted by his father or his uncle to build a house; put up a store; stock it with goods, and carry on business. This young man is the ostensible owner of this property. By the credit it furnishes him he buys and traffics, and becomes involved in large debts, which he cannot pay. His creditors come upon him and levy upon his house and store, when lo! it turns out that his father owns all the property, and they cannot collect a farthing. How is this? Why the court says, it was the duty of those who gave the young man credit, to find out who owned the property, by examination of the record. So be it. How does the morality of the matter stand? We are not writing law papers, but "*Morals of Trade.*" Has there been any deception here? Let every honest man decide such plain questions for himself.

But should we push this principle still further, and say, that credit obtained by any kind of deception or secrecy is wrongly obtained, shall we be deemed infatuated with honesty? It certainly may be said that no man may endorse his own note, by putting on an appearance of wealth he does not possess. Men are, in the main, what they seem. The world has reason to trust to appearances. He is a bad man who doubts this. But one may not in strict justice take advantage of his position in society to obtain credit, when he knows he does not deserve it. The injury such a man does reaches further than the particular wrong he commits. It shakes the faith of the dealer in the honesty of his fellow-men; closes up his heart and makes him so wary and careful that trade has no life and spirit. Credit is the soul of trade, and with a few remarks upon its extent and nature we shall close this paper.

How far may a man ask credit? A man who is in no business, who has no property, who has no trade, may only ask credit to the amount he can earn by day labor, in menial offices. If he cannot work at all, he can have no credit, and is a beggar. He must ask people to give him so and so, without hope of repayment. The mechanic may ask credit to the amount he can earn in his trade, after deducting the personal expenses of himself and his family. The farmer also may ask credit to the value of his farm and stock, adding thereto the yearly profits. But he had better not take credit to one tenth their value. The farmer should give credit, not ask it. The merchant, and to him credit is every thing, may ask credit to such an amount, that his capital can cover any possible fall in the value of the articles he purchases. For instance, suppose a young merchant has a capital of twenty thousand dollars, he may in strict justice buy goods to the amount of fifty thousand dollars, because, should he fail, his twenty thousand capital will cover any probable loss, and make his creditors whole. We are saying what he may do if he chooses, with a clean conscience; not attempting to fix the exact amount, for circumstances must determine this, it may be stated, as a general principle, that a man may ask such credit that in case of ill success the injury falls only upon himself.

A man with no capital can justly have no credit, because if property

falls he has no means of making up the loss ; and yet such an one may have a certain credit furnished, granted, and given him, in consideration of skill in business, honesty, virtue, and energy ; another assuming the risk. For virtue and good habits are a kind of capital which will insure a man success, by causing others who have money to assume his risks. Knowledge also is capital, and in the same way as virtue it may enjoy a kind of commercial credit. A person well versed in any art or science, a painter of pictures, the designer, the architect, may enjoy a wider credit than a person who can bring only his manual labor to minister to his support. The skilful carpenter or mason, well tried in his trade, even if without a farthing in his pocket, may justly ask credit to a small amount, because the art of building and the working in stone or brick are always in requisition. Thus it may be seen what is the foundation of credit, and the extent of it, in all the cases cited, will vary with circumstances. If it be said that persons without property, and possessing only an art, may die suddenly, and thus cause loss to the creditor ; it will be understood from this additional risk, why the seller often charges to such persons a higher price for his goods, they paying him in this way for the risk he incurs.

It would be an interesting task to examine the reasons of all the apparent exceptions in trade, which often puzzle the buyer and even the seller himself, when called upon to account for them. Custom and a long course of experience have introduced into trade many abuses which look like justice ; and much injustice, as it seems upon a casual view, is found to rest upon the best of reasons. These remarks have been written, not as a text-book of morals, but as speculations upon one of the most interesting subjects in the world.

ART. VIII.—HEAT OF THE SEASONS.*

THE earth derives its changing seasons from its motion in its orbit, its day and night from its motion of rotation, and its light and heat from the sun, the centre of its revolutions.

Heat was probably one of the great agents employed in completing the work of creation, as it now is one of the great maintaining and exciting powers through the whole economy of nature. Without alluding to its almost magical uses in the arts, its physical effects will surprise any one not accustomed to contemplate its phenomena. The immediate results of its action are perceptible to our senses, we see it in combustion, we feel it in the variations of temperature, in the scorchings of fire, and in the direct rays of the sun ; but its nature, i. e. the form and substance of the matter of heat, like those of gravity and magnetism, are unknown. It is probably a subtle fluid, perhaps more subtle even than light, emanating from the sun, distributed throughout our planet, and doubtless through the whole solar system. Its force decreases in the same ratio as light and gravity, according to the squares of the distance. It has a mysterious union with electricity—is latent in many, if not in all bodies, and is under the con-

* From an unpublished work on astronomy.

trol of fixed laws, by which its action is regulated. By its power the most refractory rocks are melted, explosive gases are elicited, and water, converted by it to steam, upheaves the earth by volcanoes and earthquakes. By its influence the earth is clothed with vegetation—combined with light it creates the varying hues, and with moisture, the rich fruits and golden grain which gladden the world. Its hidden effects are developed as the mysteries of nature are disclosed by science, and its action is seen in many of the solid strata and the deepest caverns of the earth. It is essential also to animal life. It warms the blood, and kindles the organized being into a capacity for intellectual existence. It gives elasticity to the muscles, energy and activity to the nerves, prepares the human frame, *which else were but a model*, for the reception of the breath of life, and for the inhabitation of the immortal spirit. Without its all-pervading power the light of heaven would look abroad upon the black domain of mineral aggregations, upon shapeless masses of inorganic matter, and endless wastes of frozen waters.

The heat of the seasons is due to the sun, and its principal changes to the position of the earth in relation to that luminary. The earth is nearest the sun on the 21st of December, the winter solstice; but the highest degree of temperature is not caused by his greatest proximity to the earth, but by his greatest altitude, and the longest time he is present above the horizon. These two causes co-operate, and more than compensate for his greater distance. Were the earth a homogeneous body with an even surface, receiving the sun's heat without any modifying agencies, the difference in the amount of heat received when at his least or greatest distance would be only one fifteenth, and if the days and nights were equal, the heat imbibed through the day would be distributed through the night, making the temperature a perpetual spring; but when the sun is more than half the time above the horizon the amount of heat must be greater, and when the reverse less. Consequently as the length of the day increases, in the same ratio will the heat imparted by the sun increase, and the night's distribution will not exhaust the day's supply. In the long days of temperate latitudes, the heat being furnished faster than it is dispersed, it is hotter at two o'clock than at twelve o'clock, although more heat is radiated from the sun at 12 o'clock than at two. By the same rule the temperature of July and August is generally higher than that of June, from the heat accumulated in the long days near the summer solstice. The greater altitude of the sun is another efficient cause of the increased heat of summer; for when the days are longest he is nearest the zenith, and a much larger portion of his rays reach the earth the more nearly vertical the direction is in which they fall upon it; but at the winter solstice he reaches his lowest point as regards the northern hemisphere, and being but a few hours above the horizon, the obliquity of his rays coinciding with the diminished time, the amount of heat received by the earth will be as much below, as in summer it was above the medium, or average. This small portion of heat will then be distributed much faster than it is supplied, and the cold, which although it is only the absence of heat, yet to our senses will assume a positive character, and hold a desolating sway over the long nights and short days of the temperate and frigid zones. As the northern or southern declination of the sun brings him to either solstice, the opposite pole is involved in cold and darkness

for six months.* At Spitzbergen, the furthest northern explored land, in lat: 78 deg. N., the darkness prevails five months; at the North Georgian Islands and Nova Zembla, in lat. 75 deg. N., four months; thus varying with the latitude, until at 66 deg., which is the arctic boundary, the longest night is twenty-four hours. The sun is half the time above and half the time below the horizon in the course of the sidereal year, all over the world, every place having an equal amount of light and darkness, though differently divided as to day and night, and every period alternates with a corresponding period during the sun's northern and southern declination. If there are six months' darkness at the north pole when the sun is in Capricorn, there are six months' light when he is in Cancer. The whole year may be divided into pairs of days, the dark and long winter nights when the sun is south of the equator, being compensated by the same quantity of light and long days when he returns north to the summer solstice.

The total amount of solar radiation thus determines the general temperature of the globe; but there are many agencies in operation which modify the effects of these laws, and render the variations almost endless, and in some instances unaccountable. The mean annual temperature will be constant at each parallel of latitude so far as depends on the heat of the sun, but a countless diversity will occur from the presence of bodies more or less capable of reflecting or absorbing heat; by the elevation of continents; the contiguity of lakes, seas, oceans, rivers, and forests; by snow-crowned mountains; by sandy deserts; by deep valleys; and by streams of water, which abstract heat by the process of evaporation. The cold currents of air which sweep from the poles over the snow and ice of the arctic and antarctic regions, temper the fervid heats of the torrid zones, while the warm currents from the equator soften the rigors of the polar frosts. The Gulf Stream is a striking example. It brings so much heat from the tropics as to keep an open sea off the western coasts of Spitzbergen.

The ocean covers three fourths of the surface of the globe, and is not subject to such extremes as the land. Much heat is transmitted to its deep recesses, and it is more equally diffused over its comparatively even surface. It radiates a more genial heat than that reflected from opaque substances; it tempers the atmosphere by evaporation; in winter it mitigates the cold of coasts and islands, and fans adjacent countries in summer with its delicious breezes. On the contrary, the cold blasts, freighted with snow and ice from Hudson's bay, the Frozen ocean, and the northern lakes, carry flights of unseasonable winter throughout the North American continent, causing those fierce extremes, which, prodigal of human life, make war upon the comfort and health of the inhabitants. Similar effects, though less in degree, proceed from the winds which traverse the wastes of Siberia upon the midland countries of Asia; and these again are re-

* The arctic night is not totally dark throughout the whole period of the sun's absence, for the twilight continues some days, and is afterward peculiarly glowing in the southern edge of the horizon at noon. The moonlight too, and the dazzling whiteness of the snow, with the long dawn corresponding with the preceding twilight, increasing as the sun approaches, make the maximum of darkness of not very long continuance.

The aurora borealis often illuminates those dreary silent solitudes with its fantastic movements, and mild, pale-colored lights.

modified by the immense chains of Caucasus and the mountains of Tary. Europe enjoys a more equable climate. A belt of open sea separates it from the Frozen ocean, and it has the further advantage of being on the western side of the continent.

The reflection of heat from sandy deserts is another qualifying cause of great extent. The desert of Sahara, in Africa, comprehends 194,000 square leagues—being twice the area of the Mediterranean sea. It reflects from its burning surface a heat the more intense from receiving the continued action of an almost vertical sun. No long nights distribute the heat accumulated through the day; no forests shade the soil from it; no green valleys, or heaths, or meadows, absorb it and cool the atmosphere by evaporation. The unelastic air rolls in mighty volumes, laden with sand and mephitic gases, overwhelming the traveller—drifting its moving surface to the pyramids and the Red sea—intimating to Cairo and Suez the fate of Memphis and Thebes. Crossing the Mediterranean, the sirocco suffocates the inhabitants of Italy, as the simoom does the caravan in the desert—and Arabia sends its wasting heats and sickening hot-wind or kamsin, beyond the Euphrates and the Persian gulf, to Shiraz and Bagdad.

ISOTHERMAL LINES

are those circuits around the planet where equal degrees of heat are experienced. These lines are parallel each side of the equator until the 22d or 23d deg. of latitude. At those parallels they begin to diverge, and at 36 deg. and 40 deg. begin to be altogether irregular. In the northern hemisphere, one line of equal annual temperature runs through Rome and Florence, in latitude 43 deg. north, and through Raleigh, in North Carolina, in latitude 36 deg.; another through the Netherlands, latitude 51 deg., and Boston, in New England, latitude 42 deg. Edinburgh, in latitude 55 deg., averages also with Boston. Ulco, in Lapland, latitude 66 deg., ranges with Lake Winnipeg, in latitude 54 deg. M. Kupffer, the Russian traveller, states that the temperature of the air and soil vary the most rapidly near and beyond the 45th deg. of north latitude in America and Europe. The difference will be more readily appreciated by comparing Edinburgh, with all its elegance and luxuries—its palaces and halls of learning—its gifted scholars and polished society, with Labrador in the same parallel of latitude, on the eastern side of the west continent, locked in the silent thralldom of icy desolation; inhabited by a few straggling Esquimaux in huts of snow, with no other clothing but the skins of wild beasts, and depending for subsistence on sea-dogs and other ocean monsters.

The heat and weight of the atmosphere diminish, as we ascend from the level of the sea. These facts are proved by the observation of travellers, ascent in balloons, by the zones of vegetation on the sides of mountains, by the rarity and want of elasticity in the air, and by the excessive cold at great elevations, as well on those under the line as those near the pole. At the foot of mountains, under the equator, spring the fruits and flowers of the tropics; then follows a zone of the olive and the vine—then the broad-leaved forests—then the fir and the pine—then the dwarf willows, stunted shrubs, evergreens and mosses; and last, the crests of never-changing snow.

There are yet other known causes of the variations of temperature; but

why the air in any given place should be mild and genial one day, and chilled by frost, or scorched by heat on the next day following; or why one period should be occupied with one extreme, and the succeeding by another; or why one season should be racked with all extremes in quick succession, are mysteries which neither chemistry, mathematics, nor natural philosophy, have ever yet penetrated or revealed. Electricity is known to have a powerful agency in atmospherical phenomena, and doubtless extends its invisible influence over every part of organized matter. It seems to be a kindred element with heat, and what are now the obscure results of their joint action, may at some future day resolve the mysteries of meteorology in connection with the variations of temperature.

ART. IX.—OUR TRADE WITH ENGLAND.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine :

I have always been a warm advocate for what is called Home Industry, holding that, in the main, political economy does not essentially differ from domestic economy; and believing that a family, to be really prosperous and independent, must from within itself and from its own resources supply its own wants. There may be some things requisite for the general comfort, which it cannot produce but with great inconvenience and disadvantage; and some, which it cannot produce at all; but these it must not have unless it has the means of paying for them from the products of its own industry; it must contract no debts unless it has a certain provision for their discharge; and it must indulge in no luxuries or superfluities whatever, unless from surplus gains beyond what are demanded for the substantial comforts and absolute necessities of life. These principles are sure, with industry, frugality, and temperance, to secure domestic prosperity, and they are equally and as indispensably the elements of national independence. Under these circumstances I am an advocate for a tariff, which shall protect our home manufactures against a ruinous foreign competition; and I am for absolute prohibition, if it were practicable and necessary either for the just reward of our own industry or for the prevention of any luxurious indulgences which we have not the means of paying for, and which can be had only at the expense of debts and obligations to other nations, which render us slaves or bankrupts, and too often in the end break down all good morals and all principles of commercial honor. This has been most signally illustrated in our own history of a few years past.

But with some persons a tariff is advocated on grounds of retaliation, with which I have no sympathy, and particularly in respect to England. She, it is said, ought to deal with us upon terms of perfect reciprocity, which I admit; and farther, ought to repeal her corn laws and her heavy duties upon foreign products, and ought to admit our products upon much lower terms than she now insists upon, altogether to our disadvantage. Now in the first place her corn laws and her prohibitory duties are the very principles of political economy upon which we are so anxious that our own government should act; and while we desire such imposts as will protect our manufactures of cotton and wool, it is not very consistent in

us to complain of her corn laws, which are wholly designed to protect and encourage the greatest interest of her country, her agricultural interest. But the truth is that we make complaints in this case which are without reason, as though in the trade with England the advantages were all on her side and the injuries all on ours ; as though she took nothing from us in payment for the vast amount of her productions which we consume.

Further, if her high duties upon foreign wheat were repealed, it would be no advantage to us, excepting as it might reduce the amount cultivated in England ; we should not sell a single barrel of flour the more to her, but for the reason above assigned, and not on account of the reduction of price ; and if her ports were thrown entirely open, we should then have to come in competition with the cheap Indian corn of the Mediterranean, and the wheat of Poland and the north of Europe, and the Black Sea. But as it is, Great Britain admits an immense amount of our wheat free of duty, and of flour at a very low impost, into Canada ; and this wheat, after being manufactured at the Canadian mills, goes to Great Britain, with a very light, if any duty, as colonial produce ; though it is well known that Canada by no means produces flour or bread enough for her own consumption.

But to set this matter in a clear light, let us examine some facts in the case, which cannot be controverted.

Our imports from England, in the year ending on the 30th September, 1840, were \$33,114,138. Our exports to England the same year were, of domestic produce, \$51,951,778, and of foreign produce \$5,096,882 ; or total exports, \$58,148,660.

But in another authentic English document it is stated, that the exports from the United States to Great Britain and her dominions, exceeded 64,000,000 dollars in the year ending with September, 1840 ; and in that amount were included the following agricultural productions of the United States :

1,717,019 bushels of wheat, valued at . . .	\$1,630,371
1,317,229 bbls. of flour " . . .	6,925,637
386,611 bushels of corn " . . .	229,807
132,099 bbls. of corn meal " . . .	446,464
49,193 " rye flour " . . .	156,913
Rye, oats, peas, and beans " . . .	76,604
74,876 bbls. of ship bread } " . . .	292,167
15,466 kegs " }	
32,122 hhds. of tobacco " . . .	3,776,770
495,366,332 lbs. of cotton " \$41,983,922	
24,039 tierces of rice " 418,577	
	<hr/> 42,402,499
	<hr/> Total, \$55,937,232

These are certainly remarkable documents, and will surprise many. If the balance then is so much in our favor, how comes it that we are so largely indebted to England ? It is mainly for borrowed money, which we have squandered most shamefully ; for useless goods, and mere finery and luxuries, which we bought when our rag currency was full to repletion ; which we have attempted to pay in the stock of broken banks, useless railroads, town lots in cities in the moon, and too many other fraud-

ulent ways; but which, if we have any honor or principle left, we ought never to think of paying but in that which is of undoubted, fixed, and permanent value. It would seem in these matters as though we had much less to complain of in Great Britain than she has in her prodigal, extravagant, and wasteful daughter.

H. C.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

DIGEST OF RECENT ENGLISH CASES.*

IN CHANCERY.—Mining Company.—Shareholder. Abandonment.—Shareholders in mining companies lying by and declining to advance money for the necessary working of the mines, while other persons make such advances, are liable to forfeit their shares. A shareholder in a mining company had paid all the instalments due on his shares, in October, 1826. Further calls, which were not authorized by the deed of settlement of the company, were made on him for necessary outlays. These calls the shareholder declined to pay, and a correspondence on the subject, between him and the secretary of the company, terminated in September, 1828; and the shares were, in a manner unwarranted by the deed, declared to be forfeited. The sums required for necessary outlays were furnished by the other shareholders; and in 1836, the mines began to be very productive. In 1838, claims were made, and a bill was filed for the purpose of obtaining a restoration of the forfeited shares. The bill was dismissed, the plaintiff not being entitled to any relief in equity.

AT LAW.—Bills of Lading.—C, who was in the habit of consigning to the plaintiffs as his factors, consigned a particular quantity of goods to cover a bill for £500 which he had drawn on the plaintiffs and they had accepted. The goods were put on board a vessel of the defendants', and a receipt was signed by the mate, "Received from C for E & Co." (the plaintiffs;) the defendants however refused to sign a bill of lading, as they said it was well known that C was in difficulties. When the goods arrived at the end of the voyage, they were demanded by the plaintiffs, but the defendants refused to deliver them, claiming a general lien for freight against C. Held, that the plaintiffs were entitled to recover in trover against the defendants, as, after signing the receipt in question, they were stopped from disputing the plaintiffs' property in the goods.

AT LAW.—Bankrupt.—A, a bankrupt, in order to induce B, a creditor, to sign his certificate, paid him a certain sum at the time of signing it, and gave him a promissory note for a further sum, which was afterward paid. A afterward made a demand upon B for the sum so paid him; upon which B, before any action brought, paid both sums over to A's assignees. An action being subsequently brought by A against B: Held, that such payment to the assignees was a good answer, and that A was not entitled to recover.

AT LAW.—Railway. Construction of Contract.—The plaintiffs manufactured for the defendants certain locomotive engines under the following contract: "Each engine and tender to be subject to a performance of a distance of 1000 miles, with proper loads, during which trial Messrs. S & Co. (the plaintiffs) are to be liable to any breakage which may occur, if arising from defective materials, or workmanship; but they are not to be

* Furnished by CHARLES EDWARDS, Esq., master in chancery, of New York—and to be continued.

responsible for, nor liable to the repair of any breakage or damage, whether resulting from collision, neglect, or mismanagement of any of the company's servants, or any other circumstances, save and except defective materials or workmanship. The performance to which each engine is to be subjected, to take place within one month from the day on which the engine is reported ready to start, in default of which Messrs. S. & Co. shall forthwith be released from any responsibility in respect of the said engine; the balance to be paid on the satisfactory completion of the trial, and release of Messrs. S. & Co. from further responsibility in respect of such engine." It was also agreed that the fire-boxes should be made of copper, of the thickness of 7-16ths of an inch, (and they were accordingly so made,) and that the best materials and workmanship were to be used. The engines performed the distance of 1000 miles within the month of trial; but nine months afterward the fire-box of one of them burst, when it was discovered that the copper had been considerably reduced in thickness. Held, in an action against the defendants for the balance due from them, that they could not give evidence of an inherent defect in the copper, no fraud being alleged, since, by the terms of the contract, the month's trial, if satisfactory, was to release the defendants from all responsibility in respect of bad materials and bad workmanship.

AT LAW.—Promissory Note. Presentment.—A promissory note, payable on demand, but not presented for payment, will not be rendered over due by mere lapse of time.

AT LAW.—Bill of Exchange. Notice of Dishonor. Discharging Drawer.—The plaintiff, the endorser of a bill of exchange, was a member of a partnership carrying on business at Smethwick, near Birmingham. Before the bill became due, he went to Tremadoc, in Caernarvonshire, where he had mining business, having directed all communications to be sent to him at that place. The bill having been dishonored in London on the 17th of August, notice of the dishonor reached the Birmingham Bank on the 19th, and was by them forwarded to the plaintiff at Tremadoc, who received it on the 21st, and on the following day sent a notice of the dishonor to the defendant. If the notice had been sent to Smethwick instead of Tremadoc, the plaintiff might have sent it to the defendant one day earlier. Held, that the defendant, by directing the bill to be sent to Tremadoc instead of Smethwick, had not thereby discharged the drawer.

RULES IN BANKRUPTCY.

In the district court of the United States (Massachusetts) the following rules have been recently adopted:

1. Every petitioner for the benefit of the bankrupt act shall give bond with sufficient sureties, in form prescribed by the court, in the sum of sixty dollars, to secure the payment of all such costs as shall be taxed and allowed by the court.

2. The sufficiency of the sureties shall be certified by a commissioner of the county in which the sureties, or a major part of them, reside.

3. On and after the first Tuesday of April, 1842, such bond shall be filed at the time of presenting the petition. And every such petitioner who has filed, or shall, before said first Tuesday of April, 1842, file his petition, shall give such bond on or before the first Tuesday of May, 1842, unless for special cause shown the time shall be enlarged by the court.

4. Every creditor who shall file a petition to have any person declared a bankrupt *in invitum*, or an involuntary bankrupt, shall prove his debt before a commissioner, in the manner and form now prescribed by the rules of the court, at or before the time of filing such petition, *mutatis mutandis*. He shall also, at or before the same time, execute a bond, with one or more sureties, to the United States, for such sum and in such form as the court shall prescribe, for the payment of all costs which shall be awarded against him by

the court under the proceedings upon such petition, and the court will ensure the payment of such costs by attachment, if necessary. He shall also make oath, or if conscientiously scrupulous of taking an oath, he shall make solemn affirmation to the truth of the facts stated in the petition, according to his best information, knowledge, and belief. But one partner of a firm or company may, in such case, make the oath or solemn affirmation and give the bond, if the debt be due to the firm or company; and if the petition be by a corporation, the oath or affirmation and the bond may be by the same person who is authorized by the act of congress to prove a debt due to the corporation.

5. Every creditor or other person in interest, who shall appear in bankruptcy and file any petition, answer, objection, or other proceeding in writing in bankruptcy, shall in like manner prove his debt, claim, or other interest at or before the time of filing thereof, and he shall give bond, with sureties in like manner, for the payment of all costs which shall thereupon be awarded against him by the court in bankruptcy; and he shall also make oath or solemn affirmation in like manner to the truth of the facts stated in such petition, answer, objection, or other proceeding in writing, according to his best information, knowledge, and belief, *mutatis mutandis*.

6. In all cases where any creditor or other person in interest shall appear on the return day for hearing the petition, to file objections against any person who has filed a petition to be declared a voluntary bankrupt under the act of congress, he shall, unless some other time shall, for special cause shown upon affidavit, be directed by the court, file his objections in writing in such form as shall be prescribed by the court, within four days from such day, otherwise the objections shall be deemed to be waived and withdrawn.

7. Whenever in cases not specially provided for by the act of congress, a particular time is or shall be prescribed by the rules of the court for notice to be given of any petition, application, or other proceeding in bankruptcy, the court may, in its discretion, for good cause shown upon affidavit, enlarge or lessen or vary the time, whenever the rights of the creditors or other parties may, in the opinion of the court, seem to require it for the purposes of justice and equity.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

CAPTURE OF A BRITISH MERCHANTMAN.

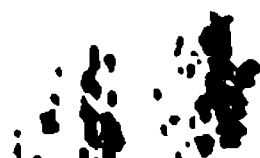
AN INCIDENT OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR OF 1776.

The following incident is related by Mrs. Adams, under date of "Braintree, Mass., April 7th, 1776," in one of those very interesting letters to her husband, the late venerable John Adams, one of the leaders of the revolution, and afterwards President of the United States:—

"Yesterday, was taken into Cohasset, by three whale boats which went from the shore on purpose, a snow from the Grenadas, laden with 125,000 pounds coffee, 43 barrels sugar, and 354 puncheons of rum—a valuable prize."

The capture of this vessel at an early period of the war, was thus related a few years ago, by one of the survivors, Mr. Luther Barnes, of Hingham, since dead.

A young man of Boston, just then a graduate of Harvard College, being at the time spoken of on a gunning excursion to Cohasset, a little village near the seashore, about twenty miles from Boston, descried at an early hour of the morning a British vessel in the offing, deeply laden, and armed, but which had the appearance of being a merchantman. He attentively surveyed her with a glass, and perceiving but few men astir, a thought occurred to him that if instant means were used, she might be surprised and captured.



Of an ardent temperament, and excited by the spirit of adventure, he hastened back to the village, and roused from their beds eight men whom he knew, and in whom he could confide, and to them communicated the discovery he had made ; his belief that she could be taken, and his purpose ; together with an offer to lead them on to the attack, if they would join him. The men thus aroused, readily agreed to take a look at the craft, and see what could be done, and then to determine whether or not to peril their lives in the undertaking. Providing themselves hastily with such weapons as were at hand, consisting of ducking guns and fish spears, they hurried to the quay ; and, on coming within sight of the vessel, she was again carefully surveyed by every one in turn with the glass. The sea was calm, for at that hour the morning breeze had not yet sprung up, and she was drifting out with the ebb tide.

A council was held, and after prompt and quick deliberation, all hands agreed to join in the adventure, and attempt her capture. A whale boat lying on the beach was shoved through the surf and manned, and the strictest silence being enjoined, off they rowed towards her ; the young man taking the helm.

On coming within musket shot distance, her ports were opened, and a tier of four guns on the larboard side displayed ; a voice at the same time hailing them, " Keep off, you d——d Yankee rebels, or we'll sink you !" The little band, nothing daunted, quickly laid upon their oars, and bent their bodies downward, as had been already concerted, so that the first broadside might pass over them ; intending, if they escaped destruction from the fire, to board her in the smoke, before time was given to reload. After waiting in this breathless and fearful state of suspense a minute, and no guns being fired, they again, at the word of command, sprung to their oars, and in a short space of time, the little bark was shot rapidly alongside, and under her guns. In another moment they had climbed up her sides, their fish spears now serving them for boarding pikes, and gained possession of her deck, little or no resistance being made. By this time the captain was ascending the companion ladder, and learning the fate of his vessel, surrendered himself a prisoner.

It appeared that he had made land about midnight, and believing from his proximity to the British fleet, (then riding at anchor in Boston harbor, almost in sight,) that no danger was to be apprehended, his usual vigilance had slumbered, and part of the crew on the watch below had not yet turned out. The captors were soon joined by a reinforcement of men in two more boats, and the prize was towed into Cohasset harbor, and at once unladen. She proved to be the British snow *Industry*, of 250 tons burden, from Tobago, bound to Boston, with a cargo of coffee, sugar, and rum for the use of the British fleet. It afforded a very opportune supply for the colonists of Massachusetts Bay, as the articles were then much needed.

The names of the captors were Colonel Lathrop, Seth Stoddard, H. Oakes, Luther Barnes, Mr. Tower, and four others. The young man who projected and led on the enterprise, was Isaiah Doane, Esq., of Boston ; afterward a well-known merchant of that city, long since deceased.

D. .

SMUGGLED GOODS,

AN ANECDOTE OF THE LAST WAR.

The impressions made on our boyhood are the strongest we ever receive, and remain with us even to old age as fresh and vivid as at the first. During our clerkship we form opinions of men and things which no after circumstances can eradicate. A boy when he sees any inconsistency of character in another, makes no allowance for circumstances ; he judges only the naked fact, and condemns or approves accordingly. I never knew a man who stood well in the community, of whom his clerks thought meanly, and hence

I would rather have the good opinion of my clerk than a stranger's, for if less critical, it is more honest and true. I recollect being made a confidant in the secrets of two individuals when a boy, which gave me a contempt for their characters that I could never get rid of, and if brought in contact in business with them now, I should always suspect their honesty. They were heated politicians, with so hearty a contempt for John Bull, that taking their own word for it, they would not so much as eat with a knife and fork of English manufacture, if they could avoid it. During the war, the English had possession of Castine, at the head of Penobscot Bay, and smuggling English goods from that place into the country was extensively practised. The temptation was too great for the cupidity of our two republicans, and fairly overcame all their scruples. I lived at that time in an eastern town, and one bitter cold night in February, I was called from my bed by two men whom I never knew before, at two o'clock, to go and receive several sleigh loads of smuggled goods, which, by direction of my employer, I took into the cellar, through a back way, in the store where I was a clerk, and secreted them carefully.

One of the sleighs was loaded with hardware, and in crossing the ferry over the Kennebeck, they met with a sad accident. The only ferry-boat was a large flat gondola. When they arrived on the opposite side, intending to stop for some refreshment, they drove the sleighs out of the gondola, except the hindmost one, which being loaded with the hardware was very heavy and tipped the boat very much. This was permitted to remain, and while they were regaling themselves, the tide rose, overflowed the sides of the boat, and sank it. The goods were of course wet. Among them was a package of sewing needles, and being accustomed to handling such goods, our republicans employed me to open, dry, and re-pack them in emery, which I did very carefully, at the expense of several days' labor. Needles were five times as dear then as now, so that the case was valued at some hundreds of dollars, which but for my care and industry would have been spoiled entirely. And one day when a customhouse officer came into the store to search for smuggled goods, I showed him every place in the store except where they were. The goods were delivered out again and sent in small parcels to Boston and New York for sale. The part I had taken and the value of my services led me to expect a generous reward, and I congratulated myself with the anticipated profits of fidelity to the trust reposed in me. When the last package of goods was removed, one of the smugglers came to me and said: "You are a capital little fellow; if I had you in my store you would be worth your weight in gold. Always be as faithful, and you will always be trusted."

Expectation was now on tiptoe; I would not have given a sixpence to insure a twenty dollar bill in my hand the next moment, but like all high worldly hopes mine were doomed to disappointment. The republican smuggler put his hand in his pocket and solemnly drew forth an American half-dollar. "That," said he, "is the real coin, the true American eagle; keep it, and be sure you always avoid an Englishman as you would poison." He took his valise in his hand and walked towards the stage office—I looked after him till he was out of sight; and his gait, form, and figure, to the smallest outline, are as fresh in memory now as at that moment, and the contempt I then felt for him has never been effaced. I have met him often in the streets of New York; he does not know me, but I never passed him without laughing, though I have kept his secret to this day.

The morals which I would draw from this short story, are, first, always make a bargain for your services beforehand; never expect a sense of justice in a man whom you know to be dishonest in any thing; never trust a man's patriotism who talks loudly in politics.

BANK STATISTICS.

NEW YORK SAVINGS BANKS.

The annual reports to the legislature, of these useful institutions, for the year ending 1st January, 1842, show the following results, viz :—

	<i>Received in 1841.</i>	<i>Paid in 1841.</i>	<i>Total Deposits.</i>
Albany Savings Bank,...	\$151,526	\$117,556	\$355,774
Brooklyn do.	95,152	65,479	243,533
Bowery do.	414,867	306,862	792,035
Greenwich do.	89,082	65,029	232,436
New York do.	1,222,919	1,039,518	3,758,912
Schenectady do.	33,650	28,277	77,937
Utica do.	83,365	44,175	*38,676
TOTAL,.....	1,790,561	1,666,896	5,499,303

* Since organization in 1839.

STABILITY OF BANK STOCK IN BOSTON.

The object of the following paper, which has, since its appearance in the Boston Mercantile Journal, been revised and corrected by the author, Dr. J. Chickering, for the Merchants' Magazine, is to show the comparative value (in August, 1838, and in August, 1841) of the bank stock in Boston, assuming the sales and quotations at the time as the standard of value. The result will show that there have been fluctuations in the value of some of the shares during the three years. It is believed that the values affixed to the shares will not materially differ from the prices in the market at the two epochs, and therefore may be regarded as the market value.

The first of the two following tables shows the comparative value of the shares in the twenty-five banks now in operation, in August, 1838, and in August, 1841.

In August, 1838, the capital of these banks amounted to \$17,300,000. In 1839, the capital of the Merchants' Bank was increased \$500,000, and that of the Suffolk \$250,000, while that of the Market was reduced in 1839 \$200,000, and in 1841 \$240,000; the difference between the increase and the reduction being \$310,000, which, added to the above amount, makes the present amount of banking capital in Boston \$17,610,000.

The reduction of the capital of the Market Bank in 1839 was made by the extinction of 2000 shares which had never been paid for; of course, the loss on its capital during the three years from \$88 to \$62 50, or \$25 50 per share, was on 8000 shares only. In February, 1841, the reduction from \$800,000 to \$560,000 was made in consequence of a loss of 30 per cent of the capital, and the par value of the shares was reduced by the act from \$100 to \$70 each.

It may be remarked that, during these three years, there was some loss of dividends to stockholders. In eleven of the twenty-five banks, the amount of dividends paid was \$1,179,500, which is 4.80 per cent per annum on the average capitals of \$8,176,666½, and is less than 6 per cent per annum by \$292,300 or 1.19 per cent. In eight of them the annual dividends was 6 per cent per annum on the average capital of \$4,950,000. In six of them the dividends have averaged 7.09 7.27 per cent per annum on the average capital of \$4,500,000. The result of the whole is that the capital of these 25 banks for the three years averaged \$17,626,666½ per annum, and the dividends averaged 5.72 408.661 per cent per annum, and amounted to 17.17 563.661 per cent in the three years, and the loss of dividends was \$144,800, or .82 98.661 per cent in three years, and has averaged \$48,266½, or .27 253.661 per cent per annum. The semi-annual dividends of the twenty-five banks during the ten years including 1841, or since they have commenced declaring dividends, have averaged a little over \$5 80 per cent per annum on

their capital. Besides, in 1839, the Suffolk Bank divided among the stockholders the sum of \$250,000 of its reserved profits, amounting to 33½ per cent of its capital, upon occasion of increasing the capital to \$1,000,000, according to an act of the legislature; moreover, the \$250,000 of new stock, created in 1839, had improved 14 per cent in August, 1841, which improvement amounted to \$35,000, besides the improvement of 6 per cent on all the shares as mentioned in the following tables:—

NAMES OF BANKS.	Capital. Aug. 1841.	Par Val.	MARKET VALUE.		DEPRECIATION IN THREE YEARS.		IMPROVEMENT IN THREE YEARS.	
			Aug. 1838.	Aug. 1841.	Per Ct.	Amount.	Per Ct.	Amount.
Atlantic,.....	\$500,000	\$100	96 per ct.	94 per ct.	2 p. c.	\$10,000
Atlas,.....	500,000	100	75 "	94½ "	19½ p c	\$96,250
Boston,.....	600,000	50	52½ pr. sh	54 per sh.	2½ "	15,000
City,.....	1,000,000	100	99 per ct.	94 per ct.	5 "	50,000
Columbian,...	500,000	100	103 "	104½ "	1½ "	8,750
Eagle,.....	500,000	100	102½ "	103 "	½ "	3,750
Freeman's,...	150,000	100	95 "	95 "
Globe,.....	1,000,000	100	104 "	104 "
Granite,.....	500,000	100	88 "	90 "	2 "	10,000
Hamilton,....	500,000	100	101 "	103 "	2 "	10,000
Market,.....	560,000	70	88 per sh.	62½ pr. sh	25½ sh.	204,000
Massachus'ts,	800,000	250	95 per ct.	100 per ct.	5 "	40,000
Mechanics',...	150,000	100	88 "	90 "	2 "	3,000
Merchants',...	2,000,000	100	102 "	104 "	2 "	40,000
New Eng'nd,	1,000,000	100	103 "	103 "
North,.....	750,000	100	96 "	90 "	6 p. c.	45,000
Shawmut,....	500,000	100	90 "	90 "
Shoe & Leat.	500,000	100	89 "	103½ "	14½ p c	73,125
South,.....	500,000	100	87 "	80 "	7 "	35,000
State,.....	1,800,000	60	59 per sh.	58½ pr. sh	½ sh.	15,000
Suffolk,.....	1,000,000	100	114 per ct.	120 per ct.	6 "	60,000
Traders',.....	500,000	100	96½ "	88 "	8½ p c	42,500
Tremont,	500,000	100	97 "	99 "	2 "	10,000
Union,.....	800,000	100	100 "	104 "	4 "	32,000
Washington,.	500,000	100	93 "	93 "
TOTAL,...	17,610,000							401,875

Aggregate depreciation in the 3 years,.....401,500

Nett aggregate improvement in the 3 years,.....\$375

Thus there was no depreciation in the aggregate of stock in the 25 banks in operation in Boston during the three years from August, 1838, to August, 1841, though there was some depreciation in the shares of particular banks. And we doubt not that the real value of the stock, as a whole, is now decidedly greater than it was three years ago.

If we deduct from the whole amount of depreciation, \$401,500, the amount of depreciation in the stock of the Market Bank, in which it is the greatest of any of the banks, we find there has been an improvement in the twenty-four remaining banks, of \$204,375, which is an average improvement of a little more than 1 per cent of their capital.

The above comparison presents a result favorable to the stability of bank stock in Boston, and indicates that there has in general been careful and faithful management of these institutions in that city. Were a similar comparison made of the other banks in Massachusetts, it is presumed that the inquiry would sanction as favorable a conclusion.

The following table will show the comparative value in the market, at the same epochs, of the stock of the ten banks in Boston which have been winding up their concerns during the last three years. Seven of them had previously failed, or voluntarily surrendered their charters, in consequence of the embarrassed condition to which they were brought

by mismanagement. The American, Hancock, and Middling Interest surrendered their charters during this period. Two or three of them went into operation with very little of their capital paid in.

Of these ten banks, the Middling Interest Bank declared two dividends, amounting to 7 per cent, in the years 1838 and 1839, while the others declared none, except the American, Commercial, and Oriental, which divided during these three years, a portion of their capital stock which is included in the value of the shares for August, 1841, in the following table :—

NAMES OF BANKS.	Capital.	Par Value.	MARKET VALUE.		DEPRECIATION IN 3 YEARS.	
			Aug. 1838.	Aug. 1841.	Per Cent.	Amount.
American,.....	\$500,000	\$100	\$78	\$50	28	\$140,000
Commercial,.....	500,000	100	50	80		
Commonwealth,.	500,000	100	3	1	2	10,000
Franklin,.....	150,000	100	0	0		
Fulton,.....	500,000	100	1	0	1	5,000
Hancock,.....	500,000	100	50	12	38	190,000
Kilby,.....	500,000	100	0	0		
Lafayette,.....	150,000	100	0	0		
Middl'g Interest,	150,000	100	21½	21½		
Oriental,.....	750,000	100	45	43	2	22,500
TOTAL,...	\$4,200,000					\$367,500

Improvement of 30 per cent in the stock of the Commercial Bank,..... 150,000

Nett amount of depreciation of these 10 banks,.....\$217,500

This amount is a little more than 4 per cent of the capital of \$4,200,000 in three years, and nearly 1½ per cent per annum.

Remarks.—The charter of the American Bank was surrendered December 12, 1839. Dividends of the capital to the extent of \$37½ on a share have been paid, which are included in the above value for August, 1841.

The charter of the Commercial Bank was surrendered April 21, 1838. Four dividends of the capital have been paid to stockholders, amounting to \$76 per share, and are included in the above.

The Hancock Bank surrendered its charter, December 12, 1839. No dividend of the capital has as yet been paid to stockholders. Since the surrender, a large depreciation has taken place in the supposed value of its securities.

The charter of the Kilby Bank was repealed, April 17, 1838. In August, 1838, the stock was nominally of value, but, as most of it was owned by debtors to the bank, we have put it down as having suffered no depreciation. Only a very small part of the capital was ever paid in, as was also the case with the Lafayette and Middling Interest banks.

The Middling Interest Bank failed in August, 1839, and its charter was surrendered in 1840. In September and October, 1836, when it went into operation, nearly all the shares, 1157 out of 1500, the whole number, were taken by, and loans to an amount equal to the par value, made to, persons who “remained debtors to the bank, in about the same proportion, to the time of the injunction,” on the 5th of August, 1839. The value of the stock, in 1838, and we may add, in 1841, may be regarded rather as nominal.

The charter of the Oriental Bank was repealed, April 25, 1838. The dividends which have been paid of its capital amount to \$28 per share, and are included in the above value, and the remaining value has been considered worth from \$12 to \$15.

The whole capital of the twenty-five banks which are now in operation, was, in 1838, \$17,300,000; and that of the 10 banks, \$4,200,000; total, \$21,500,000; the whole depreciation of the stock in the three years, (217,500—375=) \$217,125, which is a little more than 1 per cent of the capital.

The result at which we have arrived by this comparative view, shows the confidence of the community in the carefulness and fidelity with which these institutions have been managed during the three years in question, and may be regarded as a pledge of the safety of this kind of investment, and of the stability and good credit which these institutions will hereafter maintain. From Bicknell's Reporter of the 31st of August, 1841, it appears that in 20 banking and other principal companies in Philadelphia, with an aggregate capital of \$62,217,300, the depreciation in the market value of the stock, from August 14, 1838, to August 27, 1841, has been \$56,757,920, or over 91 per cent of the par value, which is 90 per cent greater than that of the 35 banks in Boston, during the same period, and, in proportion to capital, over 90 times greater, and in amount, over two hundred and sixty-one times greater.

According to the foregoing comparative view, the depreciation of the stock of the 25 banks was nothing during the three years, and there was, on the whole, rather an improvement. In reality, the aggregate of these banks should be presented more favorably. The bonus which the Suffolk Bank gave to its stockholders in 1839, in scrip or stock, to the amount of \$250,000, and 14 per cent on the same, amounting to \$35,000, before mentioned, should be added to \$375, and we have \$285,375, as the improvement in these banks, which is nearly one and two thirds of one per cent on their present capital. This sum exceeds the depreciation on the 10 banks now winding up their concerns, so that there has actually been an improvement in the market value of the aggregate of the 35 banks in Boston, during the three years from August, 1838, to August, 1841.

BOSTON BANK DIVIDENDS.

SEMI-ANNUAL DIVIDENDS DECLARED AND PAID BY THE BANKS IN BOSTON, APRIL 4, 1842.

<i>Banks.</i>	<i>Capital.</i>	<i>Dividend.</i>	<i>Amount.</i>
Atlas,.....	\$500,000	2 per cent	\$10,000
Atlantic,.....	500,000	3 per cent	15,000
Boston,.....	600,000	3½ per cent	21,000
City,.....	1,000,000	none	
Columbian,.....	500,000	3 per cent	15,000
Eagle,.....	500,000	none	
Freeman's,	150,000	3½ per cent	5,200
Globe,.....	1,000,000	3 per cent	30,000
Granite,.....	500,000	2½ per cent	12,500
Hamilton,.....	500,000	3 per cent	15,000
Massachusetts, *.....	800,000	\$7 per share	22,400
Market,.....	560,000	3 per cent	16,800
Mechanics',.....	150,000	3 per cent	4,500
Merchants',.....	2,000,000	3½ per cent	70,000
New England,.....	1,000,000	3 per cent	30,000
North,.....	750,000	none	
Shoe & Leather Deal'rs,	500,000	3½ per cent	17,500
Shawmut,.....	500,000	3 per cent	15,000
State,.....	1,800,000	3 per cent	54,000
Suffolk,.....	1,000,000	4 per cent	40,000
South,.....	500,000	none	
Tremont,.....	500,000	3 per cent	15,000
Traders',.....	500,000	none	
Union,	800,000	3 per cent	24,000
Washington,.....	500,000	2 per cent	10,000

TOTAL,.....\$17,610,000

\$442,900

* 3,200 shares, par \$250.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF ENGLAND.

VALUE OF EXPORTS IN 1839, 1840, 1841.

It appears from parliamentary documents that the imports into the United Kingdom, calculated at the official rates of valuation, amounted in 1839, to £61,268,320; in 1840, to £62,004,000; and in 1841, to £67,432,964. The exports for the same years, of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom, amounted in 1839, to £92,459,231; in 1840, to £97,402,726; and in 1841, to £102,705,372. The foreign and colonial merchandise exported, amounted in 1839, to £12,711,318; in 1840, to £12,795,990; and in 1841, to £13,774,306; making the total value of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom, and foreign and colonial merchandise, exported in 1839, amount to £105,170,549; in 1840, to £110,198,716; and in 1841, to £116,479,678.

EXPORTS OF BRITISH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Statement of the Exports of the Principal Articles of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures, in the year ended 5th January, 1842, compared with the exports of the preceding year.

ARTICLES.	DECLARED VALUE OF THE EXPORTATIONS IN THE YEARS ENDED 5TH JANUARY.	
	1841.	1842.
Coal and Culm,.....	£576,519	£674,929
Cotton Manufactures,.....	17,567,310	16,209,241
" Yarn,.....	7,101,308	7,262,540
Earthenware,.....	573,184	590,772
Glass,.....	417,178	421,271
Hardware and Cutlery,.....	1,349,137	1,625,191
Linen Manufactures,.....	3,306,088	3,356,030
" Yarn,.....	822,876	970,840
Metals, viz :—Iron and Steel,.....	2,524,859	2,867,950
Copper and Brass,.....	1,450,464	1,529,488
Lead,.....	237,312	238,461
Tin, in bars, &c.....	138,787	86,708
Tin Plates,.....	336,529	368,047
Salt,.....	213,479	175,663
Silk Manufactures,.....	792,648	786,066
Sugar, Refined,.....	440,893	547,834
Wool, Sheep or Lambs',.....	330,233	557,676
Woollen Yarn,.....	452,957	489,344
Woollen Manufactures,.....	5,327,853	5,787,544
TOTAL of the foregoing articles,.....	£43,959,614	£44,545,595

SPECIFICATION OF THE EXPORTS OF WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES FROM THE U. K., IN 1841.

Statement of the Declared Value exported in the year ended 5th January.

Russia,.....	£128,919	Cape of Good Hope,.....	44,796
Germany,.....	751,227	British colonies in N. America,...	446,363
Holland,.....	264,444	British West Indies,.....	90,847
Belgium,.....	123,506	Foreign West Indies,.....	71,951
France,.....	44,559	United States of America,.....	1,069,721
Portugal, Azores, or Madeira,....	180,260	Brazil,.....	307,930
Spain, and the Canaries,.....	82,682	Mexico and the states of South	} 541,329
Gibraltar,.....	89,679	America,.....	
Italy,.....	222,554	All other parts,.....	113,442
East Indies and China,.....	608,552		
Settlements in Australia,.....	145,062		
		TOTAL,.....	£5,327,853

EXPORTS OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.
Statement of the Quantities Exported of the Principal Articles, in the year ended 5th Jan. 1842, compared with the preceding two years, ended 5th Jan. 1840 and 1841.

ARTICLES.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Cocoa,pounds	486,905	865,022	471,019
Coffee, viz: produce of the British possessions in America and Africa,pounds	} 24,014	64,584	238,104
Do. imported from Cape of G. H., Mauritius, and Brit. Pos. in East Indies:—			
Produce,pounds	12,385	32,180	121,738
Foreign,pounds	1,258,681	3,510,200	7,312,041
Foreign Coffee, otherwise imported,lbs.	11,467,507	9,100,450	6,602,213
Corn, viz:—			
Wheat,qrs.	7,770	31,744	3,067
Barley,qrs.	620	4,379	2,114
Oats,qrs.	40,205	36,486	23,483
Wheatmeal and Flour,cwt.	108,920	181,306	85,696
Dyes and Dyeing Stuffs, viz:—			
Cochineal,pounds	518,125	819,329	873,064
Indigo,pounds	4,345,247	4,587,398	4,827,891
Lac-dye,pounds	283,356	161,397	273,748
Logwood,tons	5,249	6,983	4,368
Metals, viz:—			
Copper, unwrought,cwt.	11,270	6,029	11,413
Iron, in bars or unwrought,tons	4,484	5,661	3,561
Steel, unwrought,cwt.	13,987	13,199	17,173
Lead, pig,tons	3,736	2,530	947
Spelter,cwt.	52,644	58,747	28,124
Tin,cwt.	22,766	6,594	25,345
Oil, Olive,gallons	166,948	130,887	159,149
Opium,pounds	10,193	35,848	61,104
Quicksilver,pounds	1,875,509	1,518,411	1,768,307
Rice, not in the husk,cwt.	245,467	288,664	229,164
Spices:—			
Cassia Lignea,pounds	656,984	644,520	1,262,164
Cinnamon,pounds	434,986	464,340	514,479
Cloves,pounds	65,704	207,310	26,745
Mace,pounds	4,073	17,373	2,802
Nutmegs,pounds	107,813	51,244	78,388
Pepper,pounds	8,334,226	5,049,423	6,373,145
Pimento,pounds	839,173	1,280,682	967,170
Spirits, viz:—			
Rum,gallons (including O. P.)	1,155,753	1,326,410	1,099,396
Brandy,gallons (including O. P.)	1,121,965	1,514,310	1,313,845
Geneva,gallons (including O. P.)	604,563	759,607	472,636
Sugar, viz:—			
Of British Possessions in America,cwt.	7,898	3,812	4,636
Of Mauritius,cwt.	692	1,541	3,824
East India, British Possessions,cwt.	1,880	2,637	8,626
Foreign, of all sorts,cwt.	375,249	221,523	498,386
Tobacco, viz:—			
Unmanufactured,pounds	9,277,518	12,224,594	10,090,171
Foreign manufactured, and Snuff, pounds	1,205,258	1,093,115	502,046
Wine, viz:—			
Cape,gallons	3,520	5,467	18,705
French,gallons	121,525	155,375	132,215
Other sorts,gallons	1,928,040	2,276,236	1,780,939
Wool, Cotton: viz:—			
Of British Possess. in America,pounds	1,362	5,696	5,382
— in E. Indies,pounds	11,647,073	20,488,534	21,321,916
Of other parts,pounds	27,089,803	18,178,999	16,346,287
Wool, Sheep and Lambs',pounds	695,049	1,014,625	2,554,455

VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE FOREIGN TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Statement of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, distinguishing the Countries to which they belonged, which entered inwards and cleared outwards in the year ended 5th January, 1842, compared with the Entries and Clearances in the two preceding years; stated exclusively of Vessels in ballast, and of those employed in the Coasting Trade between Great Britain and Ireland.

I.—ENTERED INWARDS.

COUNTRIES TO WHICH VESSELS BELONGED.	1840.		1841.		1842.	
	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>
United Kingdom and dependenc's,	14,348	2,756,533	14,370	2,807,367	14,419	2,900,749
Russia,.....	259	73,012	275	79,445	246	72,552
Sweden,.....	207	28,257	236	33,913	210	30,229
Norway,.....	969	134,449	936	141,689	845	134,268
Denmark,.....	1,557	110,727	1,440	114,590	1,169	84,411
Prussia,.....	1,165	222,258	1,186	218,403	1,076	201,685
Other German states,.....	1,171	83,267	1,207	90,842	1,271	103,061
Holland,.....	731	61,923	669	56,952	582	49,517
Belgium,.....	373	42,141	239	32,648	231	25,124
France,.....	1,508	102,123	1,045	60,063	1,110	59,065
Spain,.....	68	7,732	72	8,312	52	6,768
Portugal,.....	63	6,872	87	8,983	73	8,228
Italian States,.....	168	40,026	72	18,878	42	10,275
Other European states,.....	1	200	1	250
United States of America,.....	579	286,658	887	432,486	530	295,230
States in America, Africa, or Asia,	7	1,290	3	386	2	967
TOTAL,.....	23,114	3,957,468	22,725	4,105,207	21,858	3,982,129

II.—CLEARED OUTWARDS.

COUNTRIES TO WHICH VESSELS BELONGED.	1840.		1841.		1842.	
	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>
United Kingdom and dependenc's,	11,952	2,197,014	12,934	2,408,792	14,243	2,624,680
Russia,.....	133	36,828	94	25,903	112	33,484
Sweden,.....	151	17,287	167	18,650	160	20,734
Norway,.....	265	24,768	295	28,153	263	28,039
Denmark,.....	1,255	86,064	1,210	85,249	1,256	94,555
Prussia,.....	556	98,517	560	94,475	652	113,286
Other German states,.....	757	55,051	801	60,324	1,019	86,092
Holland,.....	513	48,830	628	58,592	541	52,830
Belgium,.....	359	52,567	297	44,367	307	37,751
France,.....	1,671	136,923	1,705	136,614	1,550	120,287
Spain,.....	52	6,221	59	6,916	48	6,649
Portugal,.....	55	6,021	76	8,914	82	9,751
Italian States,.....	119	26,633	67	18,346	32	7,824
Other European states,.....	5	1,024	2	289
United States of America,.....	579	291,586	813	396,566	565	307,380
States in America, Africa, or Asia,	2	418	2	476	1	114
TOTAL,.....	18,424	3,085,752	19,710	3,392,626	20,861	3,543,456

VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE COASTING TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Entered Inwards.—1840, Vessels, 130,254; Tonnage, 10,610,404. 1841, Vessels, 132,299; Tonnage, 10,766,056. 1842, Vessels, 130,402; Tonnage, 10,876,750.

Cleared Outwards.—1840, Vessels, 142,895; Tonnage, 11,266,073. 1841, Vessels, 146,127; Tonnage, 11,417,991. 1842, Vessels, 143,877; Tonnage, 11,750,152.

The above statement includes those vessels employed in coasting between Great Britain and Ireland.

EXPORT OF TEAS FROM CHINA TO THE UNITED STATES.

Statement of the Comparative Export of Teas to the United States; years 1832-'33 to 1840-'41, to 1st July; also, Exports from 30th June to 19th November, 1841.

CHESTS.

Kinds.	1832-3	1833-4	1834-5	1835-6	1836-7	1837-8	1838-9	'39-'40	1840-1	1841-2
Congo,.....								5506		
Bohea,.....	13665	1445	779	867	2183		2898	169	52	
Souchong,	34815	52278	35245	64760	29139	52135	11659	32968	19329	5867
Powch'ng,	4723	9181	5733	4619	4644	7720	7164	8768	3199	2081
Pekoe,.....	2563	2192	1030	2273	1604	3186	629	1819	528	
Oolong,.....								341		
Blacks,..	55766	65096	42787	72519	37570	63041	22350	49571	23108	7968
Hyson,.....	14248	23787	16500	16346	19986	13112	8850	17888	5242	2186
Y. Hyson,	51363	86115	76557	83426	93056	70146	65918	130226	60305	24971
Hy'n Skin,	31736	31591	16002	23086	24557	20986	8245	23258	12693	3998
Gunp'der,.	6614	10154	7335	8002	9373	8343	7774	14615	2798	2706
Imperial,...	5939	9424	7736	7444	8051	6911	6691	13328	2307	1889
Twankay ,	4872	2777	980	1299	5211	561	908	1820	1212	2445
Greens,.	114772	163848	125119	139603	160234	12059	98416	201135	84557	38195
Blacks,..	55766	65096	42787	72519	37570	63041	22350	49571	23108	7968
TOTAL,	170538	228944	167906	212122	197804	183100	120766	250706	107665	46163

The total exports to Great Britain from 30th June, 1840, to November 19, 1841, are 35,085,752 pounds, say 436,783 chests; of which 341,274 are black teas, and 95,509 green, viz :—

	Chests.		Chests.
Hyson,.....	28,477	Gunpowder,.....	14,028
Twankay,.....	24,153	Imperial,.....	8,293
Hyson Skin,.....	3,860		
Young Hyson,.....	16,698	TOTAL,.....	95,509

COTTON IMPORTED INTO GREAT BRITAIN FROM THE EAST INDIES AND THE UNITED STATES.

The following table shows the quantity of cotton imported into Great Britain, from the East Indies and the United States, respectively, in different years, from 1812 to 1841 :—

IMPORTATIONS OF COTTON INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

EAST INDIES.		UNITED STATES.		EAST INDIES.		UNITED STATES.	
Bales.		Bales.		Bales.		Bales.	
1812.....	2,607	95,331	1827.....	73,738	646,776
1813.....	1,429	37,720	1828.....	84,855	444,390
1814.....	13,048	48,853	1829.....	80,489	463,076
1815.....	22,357	203,051	1830.....	35,017	618,527
1816.....	30,670	166,077	1831.....	76,764	608,287
1817.....	120,202	199,669	1832.....	109,291	628,766
1818.....	247,659	207,580	1833.....	94,698	654,786
1819.....	184,259	205,161	1834.....	89,098	733,598
1820.....	57,923	302,395	1835.....	117,965	763,199
1821.....	30,095	300,070	1836.....	219,493	764,707
1822.....	19,263	329,906	1837.....	145,174	844,612
1823.....	38,393	452,533	1838.....	107,200	1,194,200
1824.....	50,852	283,871	1839.....	132,900	814,500
1825.....	60,484	423,446	1840.....	216,300	1,237,500
1826.....	64,699	395,852	1841.....	274,984	902,191

* Imported through Amelia Island under neutral flags, and captured at sea.

PRICES OF VARIOUS ARTICLES IN NORTH CAROLINA,
FROM 1813 TO 1840.

Statement of the Prices of the following Articles in the Month of May, each year.

Years. May,	Cotton. Pound.	Tobacco. 100 lbs.	Flour. Barrel.	Wheat. Bushel.	Corn. Bushel.	Bacon. Pound.	Sugar. Pound.
1813	10 a 11	8 a 9½	\$1 50 a 1 60	\$0 75 a	8 a	18 a 25
1814	15 a 16	\$3½ a 5	6 a 7½	1 25 a 1 30	18 a 20
1815	15 a 18	5 a 6	6 a 6½	1 10 a 1 25	18 a 22
1816	23 a 25	12 a 15	7 a 8	1 25 a 1 30	0 80 a 0 90	15 a 20
1817	23 a 25	6½ a 8	12 a 14	2 00 a 2 10	1 60 a	15 a 18	15 a 20
1818	28 a 30	8 a 9	8 a 9	1 35 a 1 50	0 90 a 1 00	13 a 14	13 a 16
1819	12½ a 16	3½ a 6	6 a 6½	1 00 a 1 10	17 a 20
1820	13 a 14	2 a 4	4 a	12 a 16
1821	10 a 13	2 a 3½	3 a 3½	0 60 a	10 a 12½
1822	12 a 13½	2½ a 4	5½ a 6½	1 20 a	0 80 a	10 a 12½
1823	6 a 8½	1½ a 3	4½ a 5	8 a 9	10 a 12½
1824	12½ a 13	1½ a 3	3½ a 4½	0 75 a 0 80	0 40 a 0 45	6 a 7	10 a 12½
1825	22 a 24	2½ a 4	3½ a 4½	0 70 a 0 80	6½ a 8	10 a 13
1826	8 a 10	3 a 5½	5 a	0 80 a	7 a 8	9 a 12½
1827	7 a 8½	2 a 4	4½ a 5	0 80 a 0 90	7 a 8	9 a 12½
1828	8 a 9½	1½ a 3	3½ a 4	0 65 a 0 70	0 50 a 0 55	6 a 8	10 a 13
1829	8 a 9	2 a 4	4½ a 5	0 70 a 0 80	0 40 a 0 45	6 a 7	9 a 12½
1830	8 a 9½	1½ a 4	3 a 4	0 65 a 0 70	0 43 a 0 45	6 a 7	8 a 12
1831	5 a 7½	1½ a 3	3½ a 4½	0 75 a 0 80	0 80 a	6 a 7½	8 a 12
1832	8 a 9½	4 a 4½	0 75 a 0 80	0 50 a 0 55	7½ a 8	8 a 12
1833	9 a 10½	2 a 3½	4 a 5	0 85 a 0 90	0 65 a	6½ a	8 a 12
1834	11 a 12½	5½ a 6	1 05 a 1 20	0 90 a	9 a 10	9 a 12½
1835	15 a 17	3 a 6	5 a 6	1 20 a	0 80 a 0 90	8 a 9	9 a 12½
1836	14 a 16	4 a 6½	5½ a 7	1 25 a	0 75 a 0 80	12 a 13	12 a 14
1837	6 a 8	2 a 3½	6 a 7	1 50 a	0 85 a 0 90	10 a 11	8 a 12½
1838	6 a 8	2½ a 4	6 a 7½	1 40 a	0 75 a 0 80	9 a 10½	9 a 12
1839	13 a 14	8 a 10	5 a 6	1 10 a 1 15	1 05 a 1 10	10 a 12	8 a 12
1840	5 a 8	3 a 5	4½ a 5½	70 a 80	0 60 a 0 65	7½ a 8½	6 a 10

COMMERCE OF JAVA.

The following tables, extracted from a survey of the Dutch colonial trade, published by the government of the Hague, exhibits the steady progress of the trade and commerce of the island of Java :—

IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.		
Goods.		Specie.	Wares.		Specie.
1836.....	Fl.17,848,743.....	676,150	1836.....	Fl.40,283,895.....	932,492
1837.....	21,274,178.....	513,053	1837.....	42,382,287.....	839,532
1838.....	23,205,212.....	976,665	1838.....	42,073,934.....	1,266,293
1839.....	23,989,780.....	971,232	1839.....	56,718,833.....	956,101
1840.....	26,434,624.....	2,439,269	1840.....	73,972,792.....	257,761

The arrivals in the Java ports in the same years were, from—

HOLLAND.		EASTERN ARCHIPELAGO.		ENGLAND.	
Ships.	Lasts.	Ships.	Lasts.	Ships.	Lasts.
1836.....	128.....31,006	1836.....	2,254.....390,204	1836.....	32.....6,142
1837.....	111.....31,710	1837.....	1,273..... 39,377	1837.....	18.....2,839
1838.....	153.....40,284	1838.....	1,196..... 39,982	1838.....	36.....6,968
1839.....	170.....45,081	1839.....	1,279..... 41,072	1839.....	32.....5,418
1840.....	239.....70,535	1840.....	1,389..... 42,822	1840.....	21.....3,791

It is stated in a late Paris journal, that—" The value of the rich island of Java to the revenues of Holland may be gathered from the fact that only eight years labor (1833 to 1841) has brought its produce of coffee, from twelve millions of kilogrammes annually to fifty-five millions ; its sugar, from seven millions to fifty millions ; and its indigo, from scarcely anything at all to upwards of eight hundred thousand kilogrammes."

**NEW YORK PRICES OF FLOUR, BEEF, PORK, AND TOBACCO,
FROM 1828 TO 1840.**

A Table, exhibiting the Prices of Flour, Beef, Pork, and Tobacco in the city of New York, in the months of March and September of each year from 1828 to 1840.

<i>Periods.</i>	<i>Flour—Barrel.</i>	<i>Beef—Barrel.</i>	<i>Tobacco—lb.</i>	<i>Pork—Barrel.</i>
1828, March,.....	\$5 12½	\$6 00	4½	8 62
“ September,.....	6 12½	6 50	4	10 75
1829, March,.....	8 00	7 25	4½	9 87
“ September,.....	5 62	7 62½	5	10 75
1830, March,.....	5 00	6 00	5½	9 00
“ September,.....	5 25	6 00	4½	9 87
1831, March,.....	7 12	5 75	4½	10 25
“ September,.....	5 87	4 87½	4½	11 00
1832, March,.....	5 87	5 50	4½	10 87
“ September,.....	6 00	5 50	5	11 87
1833, March,.....	6 25	5 50	...	10 75
“ September,.....	5 75	6 00	6	11 87
1834, March,.....	4 75	5 75	6½	10 00
“ September,.....	5 37	6 25	7	9 25
1835, March,.....	5 62	7 00	7½	10 00
“ September,.....	5 87½	8 62	8	14 25
1836, March,.....	7 75	6 75	7½	16 25
“ September,.....	9 25	7 25	7½	18 25
1837, March,.....	12 00	8 50	7½	18 25
“ September,.....	9 62	9 00	7½	13 00
1838, March,.....	8 12	11 25	7½	14 00
“ September,.....	8 50	12 00	12½	18 50
1839, March,.....	8 37	11 50	11½	18 62
“ September,.....	6 50	11 00	10	13 00
1840, March,.....	5 75	9 25	11	13 00

EXPORTS FROM BUENOS AYRES TO THE UNITED STATES.

Statement of the Exports from Buenos Ayres to the United States, from Nov. 1, 1840, to Sept. 30, 1841, inclusive.

HIDES.				
	<i>Dry Ox and Cow.</i>	<i>Do. Salted.</i>	<i>Horse.</i>	
Boston,.....	101,251	17,453	1,338	
Salem,.....	51,539	4,941	
New York,.....	116,640	2,040	
Philadelphia,.....	45,712	1,709	19,987	
Baltimore,.....	21,414	
TOTAL,.....	1,783,618	365,115	105,779	
SKINS.				
	<i>CALF. Number.</i>	<i>SHEEP. Number.</i>	<i>NUTRIA. Pounds.</i>	<i>CHINCHILLA. Dozen.</i>
Boston,.....	10,590	25,465	30,724
Salem,.....	2,677	300
New York,.....	5,799	32,163	23,400
Philadelphia,.....	8,188	12,730	3,078	800
Baltimore,.....	3,500
TOTAL,.....	44,569	178,370	432,944	800
WOOL.				
	<i>HAIR. Arrobas.</i>	<i>WOOL. Arrobas.</i>	<i>TALLOW. Arrobas.</i>	<i>BONES. Number.</i>
Boston,.....	5,325	194,462	28,785	98,400
Salem,.....	1,820	423	1,620	36,000
New York,.....	6,205	149,792	21,809	155,891
Philadelphia,...	4,924	75,918	4,996	52,000
Baltimore,.....	980	4,720	5,005	36,000
TOTAL,.....	127,015	820,190	870,240	1,618,854

FUEL IMPORTED INTO MASSACHUSETTS.

Statement of the Foreign Fuel imported into Massachusetts, chiefly from Great Britain and her Provinces in North America ; average for four years, viz—1835, 1836, 1837, and 1838 ; derived from legislative documents.

BITUMINOUS COAL.			
Port of Boston,	30,555 chaldrons, at	\$10 00	\$305,550
Plymouth,	171 do.	10 00	1,710
Salem,	880 do.	10 00	8,800
Marblehead,	157 tons, at	8 00	1,258
Newburyport,	898 chaldrons, at	10 00	8,980
Fall River, and Taunton,	6,224 do.	10 00	62,240
New Bedford,	1,159 do.	10 00	11,595
Barnstable,	292 do.	10 00	2,920

WOOD.			
Boston,	5,590 cords, at	\$6 00	33,540
Estimate for all the other ports in Massachusetts, value,			160,000

Total value of foreign fuel imported into Massachusetts,.....\$596,593

To this should be added a statement of the fuel imported from other states of the Union. The following is the average for four years.

BITUMINOUS COAL FROM RICHMOND, VA.			
Boston,	4,234 chaldrons, at	\$10 00	\$42,340

ANTHRACITE COAL.			
Boston,	71,851 tons, at	\$7 50	\$538,882
Salem,	4,000 do.	7 50	30,000
Fall River and Taunton,	11,000 do.	7 50	82,500
Marblehead,	167 do.	7 50	1,252
Holmes' Hole,	70 do.	7 50	525
Estimate for all the other ports in Massachusetts, value,			300,000

Total value of domestic coal imported into Massachusetts,.....\$995,499

WOOD.			
Boston,	90,000 cords, at	\$6 00	\$540,000
Salem,	30,000 do.	6 00	180,000
Newburyport,	10,000 do.	6 00	60,000
Marblehead,	4,000 do.	6 00	24,000
Lynn,	4,642 do.	6 00	28,852
Estimate for all the other ports in Massachusetts, value,			60,000

\$891,852

TOTAL annual value of fuel of all kinds imported into Massachusetts,....\$2,483,944

CONSUMPTION OF COTTON IN THE UNITED STATES.

Statement of the Consumption of Cotton in the United States, not including any manufactured west of Virginia or south of the Potomac, except in Pittsburg, Pa., and Richmond, Va.

Bales.		Bales.	
Crop of 1826-27.....	103,483	Crop of 1834-35.....	216,888
" 1827-28.....	120,593	" 1835-36.....	226,733
" 1828-29.....	118,853	" 1836-37.....	222,540
" 1829-30.....	126,512	" 1837-38.....	246,061
" 1830-31.....	182,142	" 1838-39.....	276,018
" 1831-32.....	173,800	" 1839-40.....	295,193
" 1832-33.....	194,412	" 1840-41.....	297,288
" 1833-34.....	196,413		

COTTON MANUFACTURES OF THE UNITED STATES EXPORTED.

Statement of the Exports of Cotton Manufactures, of Home Manufacture, from the United States, from 1835 to 1840, inclusive.

1835.....	\$2,858,000	1838.....	\$3,758,000
1836.....	2,225,000	1839.....	2,975,000
1837.....	2,831,000	1840.....	3,549,000

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

POPULATION OF ENGLAND.

Comparative Statement of the Population of England in 1801, 1811, 1821, 1831, and 1841, showing the Increase and Decrease in each County.

COUNTIES.	1801.	1811.	1821.	1831.	1841.	Increase Per Ct.			
						1801-11.	1811-21.	1821-31.	1831-41.
Bedford,.....	63,393	70,213	83,716	95,483	107,937	11	19	14	13.0
Berks,.....	109,215	118,277	131,977	145,389	160,226	8	11	10	10.2
Buckingham,.....	107,444	117,650	134,068	146,529	155,989	9	14	9	6.4
Cambridge,.....	89,346	101,109	121,909	143,955	164,509	13	20	18	14.2
Chester,.....	191,751	227,031	270,098	334,391	395,300	18	19	24	18.4
Cornwall,.....	188,269	216,667	257,447	300,938	341,269	15	19	17	13.3
Cumberland,.....	117,230	133,744	156,124	169,681	177,912	14	17	10	4.8
Derby,.....	161,142	185,487	213,333	237,170	272,202	15	15	11	14.7
Devon,.....	343,001	383,308	439,040	494,478	533,731	12	15	13	7.8
Dorset,.....	115,319	124,693	144,499	159,252	174,743	8	16	10	9.7
Durham,.....	160,361	177,625	207,673	253,910	324,277	11	17	22	27.2
Essex,.....	226,437	252,473	289,424	317,507	344,995	11	15	10	8.6
Gloucester,.....	250,809	285,514	335,843	387,019	431,307	12	18	15	11.4
Hereford,.....	89,191	94,073	103,243	111,211	114,438	5	10	7	2.0
Hertford,.....	97,577	111,654	129,714	143,341	157,237	14	16	10	9.6
Huntingdon,.....	37,568	42,208	48,771	53,192	58,699	12	15	9	10.3
Kent,.....	307,624	373,095	426,016	479,155	548,161	21	14	12	14.4
Lancaster,.....	672,731	828,309	1,052,859	1,336,854	1,667,064	23	27	27	24.7
Leicester,.....	130,081	150,419	174,571	197,003	215,855	16	16	13	9.5
Lincoln,.....	208,557	237,891	283,058	317,465	362,717	14	19	12	11.1
Middlesex,.....	818,129	953,276	1,144,531	1,358,330	1,576,616	17	20	19	16.0
Monmouth,.....	45,582	62,127	71,833	98,130	134,349	36	15	36	36.9
Norfolk,.....	273,371	291,999	344,368	390,054	412,621	7	18	13	5.7
Northampton,....	131,757	141,353	162,483	179,336	199,061	7	15	10	10.9
Northumberland,	157,101	172,161	198,965	222,912	250,268	9	15	12	12.2
Nottingham,.....	140,350	162,900	186,873	225,327	249,773	16	15	20	10.8
Oxford,.....	109,620	119,191	136,971	152,156	161,573	9	15	11	6.1
Rutland,.....	16,356	16,380	18,487	19,385	21,340	13	5	10.0
Salop,.....	167,639	194,298	206,153	222,938	239,014	16	6	8	7.2
Somerset,.....	273,750	303,180	355,314	404,200	436,002	12	17	13	7.8
Southampton,....	219,656	245,080	283,298	314,280	354,940	12	15	11	12.9
Stafford,.....	239,153	295,153	345,895	410,512	510,206	21	17	19	24.2
Suffolk,.....	210,431	234,211	270,542	296,317	315,129	11	15	9	6.3
Surrey,.....	269,043	323,851	398,658	486,334	582,613	20	23	22	19.7
Sussex,.....	159,311	190,083	233,019	272,340	299,770	19	22	17	10.0
Warwick,.....	208,190	228,735	274,392	336,610	402,121	10	20	23	19.4
Westmoreland,..	41,617	45,922	51,359	55,041	56,469	10	12	7	2.5
Wilts,.....	185,107	193,828	222,157	240,156	260,007	5	15	8	8.2
Worcester,.....	139,333	160,546	184,424	211,365	233,484	15	15	15	10.4
York (the East Riding,).....	110,992	134,437	154,010	168,891	193,676	16	14	10	14.6
City of York and Ainstey,.....	24,393	27,304	30,451	35,362	38,322	12	12	17	8.3
York (the North Riding,).....	158,225	169,391	187,452	190,756	204,662	7	11	2	7.2
York (the West Riding,).....	565,282	655,042	801,274	976,350	1,154,924	16	22	22	18.2
TOTAL,.....	8,331,434	9,538,827	11,261,437	13,091,005	14,995,508	14	17	16	14.5

POPULATION OF WALES.—Comparative Statement, etc., as per preceding page.

POPULATION OF SCOTLAND.—Comparative Statement, etc., as above.

COUNTIES.	1801.	1811.	1821.	1831.	1841.	Decennial Increase Per Cent.			
Aberdeen,	123,082	135,075	155,387	177,657	192,283	10	15	14	8.2
Argyll,	71,859	85,585	97,316	100,973	97,140	19	14	4	3.9*
Ayr,	84,306	103,954	127,299	145,055	164,522	23	22	14	13.4
Banff,	35,807	50,000	43,561	48,604	50,076	2	19	12	3.0
Berwick,	30,621	30,779	33,385	34,048	34,427	1	8	2	1.1
Bute,	11,791	12,033	13,797	14,151	15,695	2	15	3	10.9
Caithness,	22,609	23,419	30,238	34,529	36,197	4	29	14	4.8
Clackmannan,	10,858	12,010	13,263	14,729	19,116	11	10	11	29.7
Dumbarton,	20,710	24,189	27,317	33,211	44,295	17	13	22	33.3
Dumfries,	54,597	62,960	70,878	73,770	72,825	15	13	4	1.3*
Edinburgh,	122,954	148,607	191,514	219,345	225,623	21	29	15	2.8
Elgin,	26,705	28,108	31,162	34,231	34,994	5	11	10	2.2
Fife,	93,743	101,272	114,556	128,839	140,310	2	13	12	8.9
Forfar,	99,127	107,264	113,430	139,606	170,380	8	6	13	22.0
Haddington,	29,986	31,164	35,127	36,145	35,781	4	13	3	1.0*
Inverness,	74,292	78,336	90,157	94,797	97,615	5	12	5	3.0
Kincardine,	26,349	27,439	29,118	31,431	33,052	1	6	8	5.1
Kinross,	6,725	7,945	7,762	9,072	8,763	8	7	17	3.5*
Kirkcudbright,	29,211	33,000	38,903	40,000	41,099	15	15	1	1.2
Lanark,	146,699	191,752	244,387	316,819	427,113	31	31	30	34.8
Linhthgow,	17,844	19,451	22,685	23,291	26,848	9	17	3	15.2
Nairn,	8,259	8,251	9,006	9,354	9,923	...	9	4	6.0
Orkney & Shetland,	46,824	46,153	53,124	55,000	59,000	...	15	10	3.0
Peebles,	8,735	9,935	10,046	10,578	10,520	14	1	5	5.0*
Perth,	100,000	135,093	139,050	142,894	138,151	7	3	3	3.4*
Renfrew,	78,056	92,596	112,175	133,443	154,755	19	21	19	15.9
Ross and Cromarty,	55,349	60,853	68,828	74,820	78,058	10	13	9	4.3
Roxburgh,	33,682	37,230	40,892	43,663	46,062	11	10	7	5.4
Selkirk,	5,070	5,889	6,637	6,833	7,989	10	13	2	16.9
Stirling,	50,825	58,174	65,376	72,621	82,179	11	10	11	13.1
Sutherland,	23,117	23,000	23,840	25,518	24,666	2	...	1	3.4*
Wigtown,	22,918	26,891	33,240	36,258	44,068	17	23	11	21.5
In barracks,					4,425
TOTAL,	1,599,008	1,805,688	2,093,456	2,365,114	2,628,957	14	16	13	11.1

* Exceptions—Decrease.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

[BROUGHT DOWN TO APRIL 15.]

In commencing a brief summary of the events which transpire in the commercial world, during each month preceding our publication, it becomes necessary to glance back at those events which have marked the downward tendency of financial affairs during the past year. One year since, when a change of the federal administration took place, the prevailing distress was supposed to be such as to warrant the chief magistrate in calling an extra session of congress, to take into consideration the fiscal affairs of the government, as well as the best means of alleviating those commercial embarrassments which hung over the community at large. This was accordingly done, and the hopes engendered by the anticipated action of congress stayed in some degree that panic which had been started by the final failure of the United States Bank. When the July dividends fell due, however, the alarm was in some degree increased by the failure of the state of Indiana to meet its interest. The session wore on, and the public mind became gradually convinced that the power of congress, to retrieve the affairs of the country, had been greatly overrated. Four leading relief measures of the new administration became laws, viz:—the distribution of the public land revenues; the creation of a loan for the use of the government; an increase of the tariff by imposing a duty of twenty per cent on most of those articles which theretofore had been admitted free; and the passage of a general bankrupt law. The creation of a national bank was defeated by the veto of the president. It appeared, however, that the discussion incident upon the passage of these bills had thrown such light upon their natures as materially to lessen confidence in their beneficial effects. The distribution bill, from which great results had been anticipated, would, it was found, give very little relief to the heavily indebted states; and, from the date of its passage, prices of stocks began to fall rapidly, as well from the increasing discredit of the states themselves, as from the growing stringency of the money market. Cotton, the great staple export, had been dull of sale abroad, and prices continually falling to an extent that brought on a panic in that market, both in Liverpool and on this side of the Atlantic, involving the failure of many eminent houses; the return of large amounts of bills under protest; and a distrust of those offering in the market, drawn against cotton. This happening at a critical season of the year, being just when the supply of bills was short and a disposition to ship specie generally springs up, its effects were much more apparent. To add to this feature and heighten its effect, the discussion of the tariff had induced large imports of goods to escape the new duties about to be imposed, and to profit by the improved prices which it was supposed those descriptions would bear after the duties should be levied. An unusual amount of imports was thus to be paid for at a most critical time, and thereby accelerated the current of specie setting from the United States—forcing the banks to curtail rigorously, for their own preservation. Just at this moment, the secretary of the treasury came into the market for the loan authorized at the extra session. Of course great difficulty was encountered in negotiating it. After repeated offers and various changes in terms, the following amounts were obtained:—

<i>Date of Loan.</i>	<i>Amount.</i>	<i>Rate of Interest.</i>	<i>Redemtable.</i>
September, 1841,.....	\$16,000	5½	1844
“ 1841,.....	3,213,000	5½	1844
“ 1841,.....	2,439,000	6	1844
<hr/>			
TOTAL,.....	\$5,668,000		

This amount was procured partly in New York and partly in Boston, and the withdrawal of it from the markets greatly increased the pressure upon the banks and the mercantile community. This was felt so severely that the New York institutions became apprehensive that they would be obliged to give way and suspend. Several of the banks came forward and offered to supply the bill market at low rates, in order to check the shipment of specie, which fortunately began then to diminish as the new crop went forward. The practical effect of the extra session of congress had been thus far to increase the difficulties. The distribution bill was of no effect; the anticipation of a high tariff caused unusually large imports; and, at the very moment when the market was most embarrassed, the borrowing of the government was most severely felt. During this severe pressure, a sudden fall in flour, caused by a reaction of the English markets, carried down many dealers in that article, and involved the stoppage of many of the western banks of New York.

Up to the first of the current year, the market became a little more easy in New York and Boston, but the effects of the pressure were felt throughout the country, and exchanges on all quarters continued to rise; and, the difficulties involving the many indebted states, with the continued unfavorable accounts from abroad in regard to the markets for American produce, tended to bear heavily upon the value of all descriptions of property, particularly state stocks; and when, on the 1st of January, six sovereign states failed outright in the interest on their debts, the market broke heavily. On the 1st of February, Pennsylvania was added to the list of bankrupts. The discredit and utter want of confidence which attended these results had the effect of breaking down the weakest banks in all sections of the Union, and of forcing others into resumption. The following is a table of the leading stocks in the New York market, at various dates, from the passage of the distribution bill to the middle of April, 1842.

PRICES OF LEADING STATE STOCKS IN THE NEW YORK MARKET.

Stock.	Rate of Interest.	Redeemable.	1841.	1842.			
			August 30.	Jan. 1.	Feb. 1.	March 1.	April 15.
United States,.....	5½	1844	100 a 100½	96½ a 97	96 a 97	96 a 97	90 a 95
“ “	6	1844	97½ a 97½	97 a 99	97 a 99	95 a 97
New York,.....	6	1860	100 a 100½	86 a 87	80 a 81	79 a 80	82 a 84
“ “	5½	91 a 92	76 a 77	75 a 75	71 a 73	77 a 80
“ “	5	1855	86 a 87	76 a 77	75 a 77	68 a 72	75 a 77
Pennsylvania,.....	5*	79 a 80	40 a 58	45 a 50	44 a 48	31 a 33
Ohio,.....	6	1856-60	94 a 95	72 a 73	69 a 70	67 a 68	50 a 55
Kentucky,.....	6	1860	84 a 85	70 a 73	71 a 71½	67 a 68	68 a 70
Alabama,.....	5	1865	40 a 50	55 a 60	50 a 55	35 a 40
Arkansas,.....	6*	25 years.	59 a 63	30 a 45	38 a 40	35 a 45	a 30
Indiana,.....	5*	1861	55 a 55½	19 a 19½	22 a 23	19 a 20	15 a 17
Illinois,.....	6*	1870	55 a 55½	19 a 19½	21½ a 22	18 a 19	15 a 16
Maryland,.....	6*	70 a 80	40 a 45
Michigan,.....	6*	1860	65 a 70	15 a 20

* The states marked thus have failed.

This table presents a fall in the market value of these stocks alone of \$45,000,000, which was annihilated to this extent by want of confidence.

The low prices of produce, the scarcity of money, and the loss of credit prevented the most heavily indebted states from raising any thing towards meeting the interest on their debts; and many of them, despairing from ever being able to discharge the accumulating load, have broached the doctrine of repudiation on various pretences. In all the dishonored states, this matter has been agitated, and has greatly assisted to increase the panic in stocks. As the wants of the states increased, many of them issued a sort of scrip to

their creditors, designed to circulate as money. The following are the quantities of this sort of paper which is afloat, with the present market prices of it:—

SMALL NOTES ISSUED BY SEVERAL STATES.

		Market Value.
Illinois,.....	\$2,000,00012 a 15 cents
Indiana, receivable for taxes,.....	3,000,000 45 "
Kentucky,.....	600,00060 a 65 "
Pennsylvania, circulating \$1,700,000 authorized,.....	3,000,000 45 "
Maryland,.....	1,500,000 60 "
Michigan,.....	300,00065 a 70 "
Ohio,.....	300,000 70 "

Total state money,.....\$10,700,000

This has become so depreciated as no longer to answer the purposes for which it was issued, and in some cases measures have been taken to retire it from circulation; and in others, as in Baltimore, it has been rejected in payment of taxes. The federal government stands in nearly the same predicament in regard to the treasury notes. They have become so depreciated as to form the most profitable medium in which to discharge debts to the government; consequently, they form almost the entire receipts of the treasury, cutting off the means of the government, and causing the dishonor of its obligations to a great extent. To remedy this, a bill has been introduced into congress authorizing a new loan, which will increase the funded debt of the government to \$17,000,000. Some of the states have also authorized new loans, despite the unpromising state of the money market; but New York has alone adopted the proper method to procure the money, viz:—by the imposition of a tax of one mill on every dollar of taxable property, or one tenth of one per cent; the proceeds of which are to be appropriated to paying the interest of the loan and make up the deficiency in the treasury. Other states have come forward for loans without making any such appropriations. The following is a list of the new loans proposed:—

New York Canal Commissioners',.....	\$1,000,000
New loan of the federal government,.....	11,500,000
Ohio, to meet existing claims,.....	1,800,000
Pennsylvania, to pay domestic creditors,.....	1,500,000
Virginia, to pay interest, &c.....	300,000
Maryland, for sundry purposes,.....	1,000,000

TOTAL, new loans proposed,.....\$17,100,000

These loans must have the effect of making money scarce, more especially while the depreciation in those already existing is so great.

This immense fall in values must, of course, have had a great influence upon property of all kinds that was in any way dependent upon credit. Since the 1st of January, its effects have been very sensibly felt in the destruction of that credit or confidence among the public which was necessary to the existence of the suspended banks. It became, therefore, unavoidable for those banks which were able to prepare to resume, and for the others to stop. The legislatures of the following states passed laws compelling resumption:—

Pennsylvania,.....	1st March	Virginia,.....	1st November
Maryland,.....	1st May	Louisiana,.....	1st September
Ohio,.....	4th March	Kentucky,.....	15th June
Indiana,.....	to resume gradually	D. of Columbia,....	after Balt. and Richm'd
South Carolina,.....	paying specie	Georgia,.....	paying specie

In Tennessee and Alabama, no movement has been made. The passage of these laws, added to the state of public opinion and the fall of property, produced the following bank stoppages during the three months from January to April:—

BANKS WHICH STOPPED PAYMENT FROM JANUARY TO APRIL, 1842.

Banks.	Capital.	Banks.	Capital.
Clinton County,.....Safety Fund,	200,000	Bank of Philadelphia,.....	2,100,000
Wayne County, " ...	100,000	Bank of Penntownship,.....	460,440
Commer. Bank of Oswego, " ...	250,000	Mechanics' Bank,.....	1,400,000
Lafayette Bank, New York," ...	500,000	Moyamensing,.....	250,000
Watervliet, " " ...	250,000	Manufacturers' and Mechanics',..	401,300
Farmer's Bank, Olean,.....free,	100,000	Towanda Bank,.....	100,000
Clinton, Bank, New York, " ...	100,000	Central Railroad, Georgia,.....	2,016,359
Far. & Mech. Bk., Rochester,"	100,000	Merchants' Bank,...New Orleans,	1,000,000
Lebanon, Miami, Ohio,.....	200,000	Improvement Bank, " ...	1,526,169
Farmer's Bank, Canton, Ohio,....	201,000	Exchange Bank, " ...	968,763
State Bank, Illinois,.....	2,100,000	Atchafalaya Bank, " ...	788,990
Planters' Bank, Georgia,.....	535,500	Orleans Bank, " ...	424,700
Girard Bank, Philadelphia,.....	5,000,000	Other Ohio banks,.....	1,976,169

TOTAL, capital failed,.....\$31,449,070

As was to be expected, the stoppage of these banks, the withdrawal of their paper from circulation, and the resumption of others producing the same result, causing specie to set from New York inland, brought about an increased derangement of the exchanges, sinking prices to par on some points, and greatly increasing rates on others. The following is a table of rates in February and November, 1839 and 1840, and those for the corresponding months in 1841, also those for each month (to April) in 1842;—

RATES OF DOMESTIC BILLS AT NEW YORK.

Places.	1839.		1840.		1841.	
	Feb.	Nov.	Feb.	Nov.	Jan.	Nov.
Boston,.....	$\frac{1}{2}$	par	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$	a $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$
Philadelphia,	$\frac{1}{2}$	14	6 a $6\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a 3	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$ a $3\frac{1}{2}$
Baltimore,.....	$\frac{1}{2}$	14	$5\frac{1}{2}$ a 6	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a 2	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a $2\frac{1}{2}$
Richmond,.....	1	13	6 a $7\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a 3	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a $2\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$ a 5
North Carolina,.....	2	5	7 a 8	3 a $3\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a 3	a 4
Savannah,.....	2	10	6 a 7	4 a 5	4 a $4\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a 3
Charleston,.....	1	8	$3\frac{1}{2}$ a 4	1 a $1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$
Mobile,.....	2	15	6 a 7	5 a $5\frac{1}{2}$	5 a 6	$7\frac{1}{2}$ a $7\frac{1}{2}$
New Orleans,.....	par	10	2 a 4	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a 3	2 a $2\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a 3
Louisville,.....	2	10 a 12	6 a $6\frac{1}{2}$	5 a 6	7 a $7\frac{1}{2}$
Nashville,.....	4	8 a $8\frac{1}{2}$	8 a $8\frac{1}{2}$	10 a 11
St. Louis,.....	6 a $6\frac{1}{2}$	9 a 10
Cincinnati,.....	3	16	10 a 11	6 a $6\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{2}$ a $5\frac{1}{2}$	9 a $9\frac{1}{2}$
Indiana,.....	a 11	$8\frac{1}{2}$ a 9
Illinois,.....	$9\frac{1}{2}$ a 10

RATES OF DOMESTIC BILLS, ETC.—Continued, for the first four months of 1842.

Places.	January.	February.	March.	April.
Boston,.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$
Philadelphia,.....	$5\frac{1}{2}$ a 6	7 a $8\frac{1}{2}$	a 4	par a $\frac{1}{2}$
Baltimore,.....	4 a $4\frac{1}{2}$	2 a 3	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$	" a $\frac{1}{2}$
Richmond,.....	$6\frac{1}{2}$ a $6\frac{1}{2}$	9 a $12\frac{1}{2}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$ a $8\frac{1}{2}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$ a $8\frac{1}{2}$
North Carolina,.....	$5\frac{1}{2}$ a $5\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{2}$ a $5\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$ a 5	$5\frac{1}{2}$ a $5\frac{1}{2}$
Savannah,.....	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a 3	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a 3	2 a $2\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a $2\frac{1}{2}$
Charleston,.....	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a 2
Mobile,.....	17 a $17\frac{1}{2}$	$12\frac{1}{2}$ a 13	28 a 30	23 a 24
New Orleans,.....	$9\frac{1}{2}$ a $9\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{1}{2}$ a 7	6 a $6\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{1}{2}$ a 7
Louisville,.....	11 a $11\frac{1}{2}$	$9\frac{1}{2}$ a 10	$7\frac{1}{2}$ a 8	a 5
Nashville,.....	15 a 16	14 a $14\frac{1}{2}$	17 a 18	20 a 22
St. Louis,.....	17 a	13 a 14	18 a 20	23 a 25
Cincinnati,.....	14 a	15 a 16	11 a 12	6 a 7
Indiana,.....	15 a 16	16 a 17	12 a 13	a 12
Illinois,.....	16 a 17	17 a 18	28 a 31	a 31

PORTER & CO.'S PATENT ANCHORS.

Among the many recent improvements in the *material* of the navy, we know of nothing that can be compared, for practical utility and importance, with the new patent anchor of Messrs. Porter & Co., Dunstan, England. A model of this simple but effective invention has been shown us, and the advantages which it presents over every other anchor, make it impossible to question its superiority in every requisite of simplicity of construction, strength and security, which can belong to such an instrument. These advantages are: it cannot be *fouled* by hemp or chain-cable; it cants and takes hold more quickly than a common anchor; it holds on to the shortest stay-peak; it presents no upper fluke to injure the vessel herself or others in shoal water; it cannot injure a vessel's bows when hanging a cock-bill; and it is a most convenient anchor for stowage, as the flukes can be easily separated and stowed into the hold. These are some of its advantages; but we must not forget to mention that by the command of the lords commissioners of the admiralty, various experiments were made to test the strength of the anchor, and the result proved it to be *treble the strength* of common anchors, and of vast superiority under any circumstances.

Indeed, so satisfied are the admiralty of the value of the improvement, that they have ordered anchors for many of the ships of the royal service, and from three to four hundred are already in use in the English merchant vessels.

Our object in this brief notice, is to call the attention of our navy board, and all connected with the shipping interests, to an invention which promises to be of such essential service, as it behooves us, in these critical times, to take advantage of all improvements tending to give efficiency to our naval service.

We understand Messrs. Obear & Hoyt, No. 42 Pine-street, have secured the patent-right for this country, at whose office specimens of the anchor can be seen, and we recommend all interested, to call and examine for themselves

LISBON.

Captaincy of the Port of Lisbon, Nov. 26th, 1841.—By the Captaincy of the Port of Lisbon, it is made public that, the two boats stationed at the bar to furnish pilots to vessels seeking this port, (Lisbon,) will henceforth bear a blue flag, hoisted at the extremity of the yard, instead of the pendant hitherto used by them, as the latter may be confounded with the pendants used by them as owners' signals.—Signed PEDRO NOLASCO DA CUNHA, *Inspector of the Arsenal and Captain of the Port.*

CALAIS HARBOR.

Hydrographic Office, Admiralty, Jan. 1st, 1842.—The French government has given notice, that on the western jetty head of Calais Harbor, which has been recently extended 269 yards, a small fixed light is now exhibited, and is visible at three miles distance; but in bad weather it may be impossible to approach the extreme end of the jetty, and in that case it will not be lighted.

Until the first of May, 1842, this light will be shown and extinguished at the same time as the tide light on Forte Rouge, but after that date, the new light will continue all night.

LIGHT AT DEMERARA.

Pilot's Office, Demerara, Dec. 24th, 1841.—The lighthouse of this port, which has hitherto been white, is now painted in white and red stripes alternately, vertically, in conformity with a recommendation of the Lords of the Admiralty, of which this notice is given for general information.—By command, W. E. PINCE, *Secretary to the Committee of Pilotage.*

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The Climate of the United States, and its Endemic Influences*; based chiefly on the records of the Medical Department and Adjutant General's Office, United States Army. By SAMUEL FORRY, M. D. New York: J. & H. G. Langley.

"The design of this work," says the author in his preface, "is to exhibit a connected view of the leading phenomena of our climate, both physical and medical, comprising a condensation of all the author's observations on the subject. It is based chiefly on the 'Army Meteorological Register,' and the 'Statistical Report on the Sickness and Mortality of the Army of the United States,' embracing a period of twenty years, (from 1819 to 1839,) both of which are the result of the author's labors." As this production has already taken a place among the standard works of the day, it is scarcely necessary for us to say that Dr. Forry, in the successful accomplishment of his most laborious enterprise, has made a vast accession to the scientific literature of the country. We are here presented with the diversified phenomena of our climate throughout the entire range of its geographical limits, and also the relations existing between the climatic laws developed and the prevalent diseases of each region of the country. We are told by the physician that this is just such a volume as every member of the profession has always felt the want of, whenever his opinion has been invoked in regard to the propriety of change of place for a common invalid. But the valuable knowledge which it contains even upon these subjects, is not confined to medical men; for as the work is written in a popular style, it is equally adapted to the general reader. There is, however, another point of view in which we think it especially applicable to the readers of this journal. We refer to the beautiful development of the influence of the unequal distribution of heat upon vegetable geography throughout the United States, thus demonstrating why it is that the fig, orange, cotton plant, and sugar cane, cannot be successfully cultivated in the Atlantic region of the United States as far north as in Europe; whilst these plants, on the other hand, flourish on our Pacific coast, in the region of Oregon, on parallels corresponding to Europe. The relations of commerce and agriculture to these points are too obvious to require any further comment. Upon the whole, we take pleasure in saying that this is a volume that most richly deserves a place in every library, be it purely scientific or miscellaneous.

2.—*Punishment by Death*; its Authority and Expediency. By Rev. GEORGE B. CHEEVER. New York: M. W. Dodd. 1842.

We agree with the author in the introduction, that the subject of this book lies at the very foundation of human society, and is connected with some of the most important principles of morals and religion. We hold, with him, to the inspired record, and maintain its authority as supreme above all earthly legislation. But we cannot admit the force of the argument, however plausible, he adduces from scripture or expediency in favor of that relic of barbarism—punishment by death for capital offences. The arguments embraced in Mr. O'Sullivan's report appear to us perfectly conclusive and altogether unanswerable; and we regret to find a minister of Him who came not to destroy but to save life, vindicating a principle clearly opposed to the progressive movement of the Christian sentiment and the dictates of humanity. Mr. Cheever certainly holds the pen of a ready and able writer, and we commend his volume to all who take any interest in the subject, and particularly to those who have read and assented to the clear and elaborate arguments of Mr. O'Sullivan, as we are confident they will be fully persuaded of the soundness of that gentleman's conclusions.

3.—*History of the Great Reformation of the Sixteenth Century, in Germany, Switzerland, etc.* By J. H. MERLE D'AUBIGNE. Vol. 3. 12mo. pp. 504. New York: Robert Carter.

In a former number of this magazine we noticed the two first volumes of this spirited history of the Reformation in terms of the highest commendation, and we see no reason to retract or qualify our opinion of the merits of the work. The writer, although a Frenchman, resided long in Germany, and seems to have imbibed all that depth and ardor of religious feeling that so eminently exhibits itself in the theological writings of the German divines.

4.—*Sketches of Foreign Travel, and Life at Sea*; including a Cruise on board a man-of-war, as also a Visit to Spain, Portugal, the South of France, Italy, Sicily, Malta, the Ionian islands, Continental Greece, Liberia, and Brazil; and a Treatise on the Navy of the United States. By the Rev. CHARLES ROCKWELL. 2 vols. Boston: Tappan & Dennet.

The author of these volumes was for some time attached to the navy of the United States in the capacity of chaplain. His book is interesting, as might be judged from the titlepage, from the nature of the materials rather than from his manner of treating them. It has no pretensions to either graphic style, interesting incident, or original observation, but it contains a good deal of useful information which will well repay perusal. The bulk of the work is made up of descriptive notices of the places mentioned in his title, with reflections upon their peculiar institutions, some of which strike us as being crude and incorrect; such, for instance, as the common idea which is repeatedly insinuated that the Catholic religion is the sole foundation of the mental and moral debasement of the countries he describes. We wish that travellers, instead of indiscriminate denunciation of the Catholic religion, would inquire how many of its faults—its superstitions—and its inefficiency as a moral renovator is owing to long-standing political causes, over which it had no control; and the influence of which would, to a greater or less extent, have been shared by any form of religion with the character of the people upon whom they operated. A church system is but one of the social forces: its comparative strength in Catholic countries, its action and reaction upon political institutions, customs, physical temperament, and all that goes to make up or to modify national character, has yet to be investigated; and we suspect, by some other than the author of the present volumes. The work is beautifully printed on fine paper, and neatly bound.

5.—*Lectures on Agriculture, Chemistry, and Geology*. By JAMES F. W. JOHNSTON, M. A. F. R. S. S. etc. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1842.

These lectures were originally addressed to the Durham (Eng.) County Agricultural Society, and the members of the Durham Farmers' Club. Designed as they were for practical men, many of whom possessed no knowledge of scientific chemistry or geology, the author very judiciously commences with the discussion of those elementary principles which are necessary to a true understanding of each branch of the subject. He has, therefore, employed no scientific terms in the progress of the work, and referred to no philosophical principles not previously explained. The volume is divided into four parts, the study of each preceding part prefacing the way for a complete understanding of those which follow. Thus, the first part is devoted to the *organic elements*, and parts of plants, the nature and sources of these elements, and an explanation of the mode in which they become converted into the substance of plants. The second, to the *inorganic elements* of plants, comprehending the study of the soils from which those elements are derived—with the general relation of geology to agriculture. The third, to the *nature of manures*, by which soils are made more productive. And the fourth, to the *results of vegetation*—to the kind and value of the food produced under different circumstances, and its relation to the growth of cattle, and to the amount and quality of dairy produce.

6.—*Fourth Report of the Agriculture of Massachusetts. Counties of Franklin and Middlesex*. By HENRY COLMAN, Commissioner for the Agricultural Survey of the State. 8vo. pp. 528. Boston: Dutton and Wentworth. 1841.

The state of Massachusetts having ordered an agricultural survey of its territory, for the purpose of more fully laying open its resources, in that respect appointed Mr. Colman to make an examination for that object; and we have here his fourth and last very able report, embracing the counties of Franklin and Middlesex. The volume embodies a mass of minute information upon that portion of the state which it embraces, carefully and laboriously compiled. The facts relating to the husbandry of those counties in its various departments obtained by personal examination, and by correspondence, as well as by intercourse with practical farmers, are brought together, which will doubtless tend to the future improvement of this important branch of industry. It is understood that Massachusetts now ranks first of the New England states, in the perfection to which it has carried its agricultural enterprise, and we only regret that the legislature of that state, doubtless for good and sufficient reasons, repealed the act ordering the survey before its completion. A full report of the agricultural resources of this noble state would doubtless be of great value, and lay a foundation for further improvement.

7.—*Familiar Letters to Henry Clay, of Kentucky*; describing a Winter in the West Indies. By JOSEPH JOHN GURNEY. New York: Mahlon Day & Co.

This is the title of a small volume of letters addressed to Henry Clay, and treating of the effects of emancipation in the West Indies. Mr. Gurney, the author, is a respected and influential member of the Society of Friends in England, who, after spending some time in the United States, paid a visit to some of the British West India islands, in the discharge of his ministerial duties, where he collected the information which gave occasion for this volume. Mr. Gurney is, as may be supposed from his religious connection, a warm advocate for freedom, but his book is written with fairness and candor, and with a liberality which cannot be too highly commended. The style is simple and unpretending—the piety, unostentatious and sincere—the facts, though not copious, are many times strong and convincing, and not neutralized by any specious reasoning—and, in short, the spirit of the book is every thing that could be desired. The author was, perhaps, too little of a philosopher to give to the world a work which would be entirely satisfactory on a subject involved in so many difficulties, but his book is nevertheless an agreeable and instructive volume, which will be read with satisfaction both by the friends and enemies of the emancipation policy, and we take pleasure in commending it to the attention of the public. The following extract will serve to show that in some of the islands, at least, emancipation has not been so prejudicial to the interest of the planter as has been represented. Mr. Gurney says of Antigua:—

“We were now placed in the possession of clear documentary evidence, respecting the staple produce of the island. The average exports of the last five years of slavery, (1829 to 1833 inclusive) were, sugar, 12,189 hogsheads; molasses, 3,308 puncheons. Those of the first five years of freedom (1834 to 1838 inclusive) were, sugar, 13,545 hogsheads; molasses, 8,308 puncheons; and rum, 1,109 puncheons: showing an excess of 1,356 hogsheads of sugar, and of 5000 puncheons of molasses; and a diminution of 1,359 puncheons of rum. This comparison is surely a triumphant one; not only does it demonstrate the advantage derived from free labor during a course of five years, but affords a proof that many of the planters of Antigua have ceased to convert their molasses into rum. It ought to be observed that these five years of freedom included two of drought—one very calamitous. The statement for 1839 forms an admirable climax to this account. It is as follows: sugar, 22,363 hogsheads, (10,000 beyond the last average of slavery,) 13,433 puncheons of molasses, (also 10,000 beyond that average,) and only 582 puncheons of rum! That, in the sixth year of freedom, after the fair trial of five years, the exports of sugar from Antigua, almost doubled the average of the last five years of slavery, is a fact which precludes the necessity of all other evidence.”

This is indeed a triumphant vindication of the emancipation policy. So far as Antigua is concerned, it puts the question to rest; and in some of the other islands the result is equally favorable.

8.—*Jonas on a Farm in Summer*. By the author of “The Rollo Books.” 18mo. pp. 178. Boston: William D. Ticknor. 1842.

This little work, with its companion, “Jonas on a Farm in Winter,” is intended as a continuation of a series, the first two volumes of which, “Jonas’ Stories,” and “Jonas a Judge,” were published some time since. They are all admirably calculated, not merely to interest and amuse the juvenile reader, but to give him instruction, by exemplifying the principles of honest integrity and plain practical good sense, in their application to the ordinary circumstances of childhood.

9.—*Manual of Sacred Interpretation*; for the Special Benefit of Junior Theological Students. By ALEXANDER McCLELLAND, Professor of Biblical Literature, etc. 18mo. pp. 163. New York: Robert Carter. 1842.

The design of the author of this little volume was to give “a faithful statement of the general laws and principles of sacred interpretation, in a form so popular and devoid of technicality, that the student fresh from a literary institution can comprehend the whole at two or three sittings, and make an immediate use of them in reading the scriptures.” The treatise certainly contains some excellent maxims in the study of the Bible, but we are not prepared, with the author, to denounce as fanatics and enthusiasts Quakers and Swedenborgians, and all who hold to the “interior light.”

- 10.—*The Daughters of England*; their Position in Society, Character, and Responsibilities. By Mrs. ELLIS, author of "The Women of England," etc. 12mo. pp. 280. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

That large class of persons who read and admired Mrs. Ellis' excellent work relating to the "women of England," will be no less edified and delighted with the volume devoted to the daughters of Britain. As in the former work the remarks upon the social and domestic duties of women were expressly limited to the middle ranks of society, so in the present the writer addresses herself especially to the same interesting and influential class of her countrywomen. The views of the author will commend themselves to every well-disposed and educated daughter of America, and we trust the judicious sentiments it so forcibly inculcates, and the pure and elevated spirit it breathes throughout may be diffused very generally among our fair countrywomen. The present volume is to be followed by "The Wives and the Mothers of England," thus presenting a distinct classification of the different eras in woman's personal experience. The American publishers have displayed their accustomed taste and liberality in imparting to its pages and external form all the advantages of an elegant and improved typography.

- 11.—*A Treatise on the Right of Suffrage*. With an Appendix. By SAMUEL JONES. 12mo. pp. 274. Boston: Otis, Broaders & Company. 1842.

This volume, as its title imports, is designed to exhibit the principles which the author deems should regulate the right of suffrage in our own country. With that view he compares the structure of our own government with that of nations abroad, and shows the distinction which exists between them. A considerable portion of the work is devoted to a consideration of the subject of civil liberty as connected with natural and adventitious rights, and it is, throughout, marked by a patriotic spirit. He traces with clearness the particular features of our institutions, and intersperses the book with many original reflections connected with our rights and duties. A part of the work is also historical, and he appears to have reflected much and profoundly upon his subject. If all his positions are not conclusive, they still furnish important matter for thought. Its scope appears to be directed to a thorough understanding of the nature of our political fabric, and to the exhibition of those facts and doctrines calculated to inform the public mind respecting the most important franchise of the American citizen.

- 12.—*The Zinculi*; or, An Account of the Gypsies of Spain; with an original collection of their songs and poetry. By GEORGE BARROW. Two volumes in one. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This is quite an interesting work, although we are compelled to say that it is not so much so as the nature of the subject would have justified us in expecting. The author, however, offers an apology for its imperfections in the fact that it was written under circumstances such as are not in general deemed at all favorable for literary composition—at considerable intervals during a period of nearly five years passed in Spain—in moments snatched from more important pursuits—chiefly in ventas and poradas while wandering through the country in the arduous and unthankful task of distributing the Gospel among its children. But this does not diminish our regret that all the questions relating to this most mysterious and interesting people had not been more elaborately treated, and that an attempt had not been made to remove some of the obscurity which hangs over their early history. We hope this book may be a forerunner of such an investigation.

- 13.—*Theopneusty*; or, The Plenary Inspiration of the Holy Scriptures. By S. R. L. GARRSEN, Professor of Theology at Geneva. Translated by E. N. KIRK, 12mo. pp. 342. New York: John S. Taylor & Co. 1842.

The writer of this treatise maintains that the scriptures of the Old and the New Testament were divinely and miraculously inspired; that God has provided, in a definite though mysterious manner, that the very words of the Bible should always be what they ought to be, and should be free from error. The doctrine of the plenary inspiration of the scriptures is affirmed with great earnestness, and with the depth of feeling and sincerity of conviction so characteristic of German theologians. The work possesses a degree of vivacity, simplicity and richness, which appears to be well represented in the English translation.

HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

JUNE, 1842.

ART. I.—THE COMMERCE OF SYRIA.

SYRIA, the central country of the old world, is the earliest on record where manufactures and commerce flourished. The most ancient of histories and historical poems, those of Moses and of Homer, can carry us back to no time when Syria was not occupied by well-built, strong, industrious manufacturing and trading towns, with civilized inhabitants, enjoying more or less of personal freedom, under petty kings, and cultivating a greater or less portion of the territory in their immediate environs. The obscure tradition of the Jews that the ark of Noah was built at Joppa, a Syrian port, shows how early they supposed navigation to have flourished in this land; and we have no account of any sea-trade earlier than that of Zidon, another Syrian port, called by Moses 'a haven of ships,' and by Homer, a city 'of many arts,' and described as a trafficker with Greece, not yet emerged from barbarism, in such small wares and trinkets as we now send to the aborigines of our northwest coast, and the savages of Africa.

The fact of its having been the earliest historical seat of art, of trade, and of navigation, should interest a commercial people, like ourselves, in the mercantile condition of Syria, as also the prospect that the India trade with Europe, an object of the emulous contention of nations in all ages, may resume its long-forsaken Syrian channels; an event rendered probable by the recent successful navigation of the Euphrates by steam. The partial resuscitation, also, of the resources of Syria, under the energetic administration of Mahomet Ali's vicegerent, Ibrahim, has given immediate interest to the subject; while Dr. John Bowring's report on the commercial statistics of the country, in 1839, has pointed out those resources to occidental enterprise. From this report most of our statements are derived.

The late reversion of Syria into the imbecile hands of the Porte, while throwing it more entirely into the power of England, may also lull it again into the sleep of ages, to be waked, as heretofore, only by war or outrageous tyranny, to the display of those fitful energies which but plunge it deeper into the lethargy wherein the once vigorous and commanding East has so long and so hopelessly been sunk. The purpose may be, by reset-

ting the Jews in their ancient heritage, as a radiating nucleus of the highest order of civilization, to revive the agricultural, mechanical, and commercial industry of the country, and thus, by restoring the glories of the Solomonic age, cause Syria to hold once more, as it then did, the balance of the old world—or, to accomplish the far paltrier purposes of a more safe transit of despatches between Calcutta and London, and a temporary outlet for the over-production of the starving looms of England, instead of securing a permanent market among the teeming and thrifty population of a grateful and powerful ally. But the nations cannot forget the former baneful effects of British power in Syria, when, by checking the conquests of Napoleon here, it retarded for many generations the civilization of west Asia, so long and so ardently desired by the merchant, the philanthropist, and the Christian. Nor have recent events tended to increase the confidence of mankind in the liberality, magnanimity, or even true and far-sighted self-wisdom of the British foreign policy; so that our hopes for Syria from that quarter may well be small. Nevertheless, as will be seen, American commerce has yet some interests worth looking after on the Syrian coast.

THE LAND AND PEOPLE.

Including from mount Taurus to Stony Arabia, and from the Mediterranean to the Euphrates, Syria has a singularly diversified territory, somewhat less than that of the state of Illinois. The best authorities, indeed, give to Syria 50,000 square miles, though the uncertain boundary line, along the edge of the Syrian desert, from the Euphrates to the southern end of the Dead Sea, renders all estimates precarious. Some, too, include, while others exclude, the important district of Adana, on the northwest corner. This delightful country, which the worst misgovernment for so many ages has not been able to destroy, has a soil, wherever it appears, still fat and fertile. Once the garden of the earth, it sustained, as far back as the time when the Hebrew king ruled over its whole extent, more than nine millions of human beings; and it is even yet capable of supporting twelve to fifteen millions, though bad government and war have reduced its population to one tenth of this number, so that now the best estimates make it to nourish but one and a half, or one and a quarter million of inhabitants.

Mountains towering, in some instances, to the height of ten thousand feet, temper and vary the climate, and with their terraced sides, and the deep valleys and sultry plains at their foot, offer, within the compass of a few miles, the productions of every clime;—for Syria will produce the sugar cane, cotton, banana, and palm-tree of the tropics, as well as the vine, fig, olive, pomegranate, peach, apple, and cereal grains of its own more temperate latitudes. But in consequence of the hard terms on which government leases the open plains as its property, its arbitrary impressment of laborers and soldiers, and the consequent want of cultivators and operators, and the uncertainty, through wars and exactions, of reaping the results of any improvements or investments, the acknowledged resources of the country are undeveloped, new enterprises are unheard of, and a great portion of the soil, even of the richest plains, lies untilled and unproductive. On the north, east, and south, are some of the finest grazing districts in the world, and a population admirably calculated for pastoral employments; while the pleasant swelling hills support the vine and a

variety of fruit trees, and the plains of the interior produce abundant crops of wheat, millet, sesamum, barley, tobacco, and a profusion of delicious vegetables. This productive tongue of land, too, is admirably placed, as it were, between two broad seas, the 'watery waste' of the Mediterranean on the one hand, and the no less unproductive ocean of sand on the other; and the shores, so to speak, of both have had, like all populous shores, and still have, numerous rich seaports, wherein the traffic of the eastern and western world has been, and still is in part, transacted.

Though a subject of oppressive despotism, the versatile Syrian is, as he has been from time immemorial, an intelligent manufacturer, an enterprising merchant, fond of all kinds of trade, an ingenious artist, docile and fertile in expedients, a ready sailor, and an eager lover of all the magnificence commerce encourages, and all the luxuries it brings in its train. Could a stable and just government be assured to the country, it would very soon accumulate an abundance of valuable products, as well as capital, to pay for large importations which it would seek with avidity from abroad. The idea that indolence and shiftlessness are inseparable from the Syrian climate, is incorrect; the contrary is evident both from the past history of its Canaanitish, Jewish, Greek, Arab, and Christian population, and from the fact that energy and activity now prevail wherever the reward of exertion is assured, notwithstanding the habits engendered by long ages of discouragement to enterprise in every direction. With all his burdens on his back, the laborer even now is as comfortable, and of far better and nobler personal appearance than the cramped and poisoned victims of the loom and the furnace in "merry England." The peasantry are healthy, well-formed, and good-looking, especially the women; and the children manifest an aptness, sprightliness, intelligence, tact, and versatility of the highest promise, and beyond that of the same age in the darker and heavier atmosphere of colder climates.

The Moslem and non-Christian population forms about three fourths of the whole, but the Christian portion is the most intelligent and enterprising, though its influence and progress is very much hindered by the inveterate hatred of its warring sects—preventing coöperation and a healthy public opinion, besides giving rise to antagonist manœuvres which must necessarily paralyze all parties. Since the perfect tolerance, and indiscriminating, impartial treatment of all religions by the government of Ibrahim, the Christian population has gained much influence; while the ignorant pride of the Turk and the Moslem has received many wholesome lessons as to European superiority, which his self-conceit had for ages refused to acknowledge. European influence being now nearly paramount, Christian enterprise of all kinds will have a freer field than ever. Indeed, about all the enterprise of the country is shared between the Christians, Jews, and Armenians.

In consequence of the inexactness characteristic of the orientals, especially of the Turks, most of their statistics are but more or less probable estimates, from data more or less distinct and accurate. The following are the estimates of the amount and distribution of the Syrian population, according to the British consul-general, Col. Campbell,—viz. Moslems 977 to 997,000; Ansairiyeh (Nusairiyeh Bedawin) 22,000; Metawileh and Yrzidis, 17,000; Druzes, 48,000; Romanists and Maronites, 260,000; Christians of the Greek rite, 845,000; Jews, 175,000; total, 1,864,000, or 1,844,000. According to the American missionary, Rev. Mr. Thomp-

son, the Moslems, including the wandering tribes, are 565,000; the Antioch or Orthodox Greeks, 240,000; Maronite Papists, say 180,000—possibly, 200,000; Druzes, 100,000; Jews, 30,000, [probably in Palestine, alone;] Metawileh, 25,000; Ansairiyeh and Ismaeliyeh, 200,000; Armenians and other sects, 20,000; total, excluding the Adana district, 1,400,000.

The condition of the laboring classes is supposed to be, compared with those of England, easy and good. They feed on mutton (at 3 piastres per oke, or about $5\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound) several times a week, bread daily, sometimes rice pillans, and always pillans of bulgur (i. e. wheat husked and bruised, or half ground, after being moistened or dried;) these pillans are made either with butter, olive or sesam oil; leben, (yaghoort or ricotta or sweet curds,) cheese, eggs, olives, various dried fruits, and an abundance of vegetables, beet-roots, turnips, and radishes preserved in brine or vinegar, and cucumbers and capsicums in vinegar, for winter use. Their clothing is not very coarse; the fine climate permits them to wear light cotton and other similar apparel, and in the short winter they are generally well covered. Their lodging is good; generally each family has a separate house, or a set of rooms in the paternal house; in the towns and villages, a house. The prices of lodging vary according to locality; lodging generally in Syria, for all classes, is cheap comparatively with most other countries. The working classes rarely lay by enough to enable them to pass the decline of life without laboring; and it is alien to the ideas of the population generally, to trust to any thing beyond the aid of Providence for the future. Field-labor is paid, near Beirut, 25 to 33 cents (5 to $6\frac{1}{2}$ piastres) per day; artisans, masons, and carpenters get 14 to 15 piastres (70 to 75 cents.) The annual cost to a laborer for clothing is 15 to 20 dollars; for food, 35 to 40; lodging, in town, 10 to 20; and in the country, 5 to 10 dollars. The habitation generally consists of two rooms. Laborers at Aleppo and Damascus get 25 to 35 cents a day; a man servant, feeding himself, 3 to 5 dollars a month; shoemakers, 45 to 50 cents, per day; blacksmiths and stonecutters, 50 to 60; carpenters 45 to 60; masons, 40 to 60. The low degree of civilization the Syrian has attained may be judged of by the fact that "all productive labor, all usefully employed capital, is regarded as belonging to something mean and secondary."

Mercantile probity is at rather a low ebb, as might be expected where business fluctuations are so common, and where alternate rapacity and imbecility have so long been the habits of government. The consequent precarious tenure of property must give rise to a thousand tricks and subterfuges. From the lack of credit, however, large gambling operations are not common, but the frauds are mostly of the petty kind. Justice is paid for, not as with us, by fees, but by bribes from both parties. Under the rule of Ibrahim Pacha, however, a set of courts was engrafted upon the Ottoman system, whose decisions were very satisfactory; and as they have been so beneficial, they may have been retained by the Porte since it regained Syria, and still be the law of the land.

CURRENCY, ETC.—REVENUE—EXPENDITURE.

Accounts are kept in piastres, whose value Mahomet Ali fixes at 20 to the dollar; and their current value is the same, say five to the English shilling sterling: he is also aiming to reduce all the other coins of the country, which are numerous, to a permanent value based on their real weight and

quality. By this standard the *gold coins* are worth as follows:—*Fundukli*, date of 1143 and 1171, 45 piastres; of 1187 and 1203, 37 p.; of 1223, 36 p.;— $\frac{1}{2}$ *Fundukli*, or *Rubia*, of 1223, 9 p.;—*Stambouli*, or Constantinople, of date from 1143 to 1147 inclusive, 32 p.; of date from and after 1148, 28 p.; from 1171 till 1194, $31\frac{1}{2}$ p.; from 1195 to 1203, $27\frac{1}{2}$ p.; of date 1223, $26\frac{1}{2}$ p.;—*Full Mahmoudia*, up to 14th year of coinage, 65 p.; and *Half Mahmoudia* $32\frac{1}{2}$ p.; and *Quarter Mahmoudia*, $16\frac{1}{2}$ p.;—*Adli*, of 1223, from 1st to 17th year, 18 p.; and from and after the 18th year, 16 p.;—*Old Gazi*, 1st to 17th year, from 1223, $21\frac{1}{2}$ p.;—*New Gazi*, or *Mamduchi*, 20 p.;—*Cairini*, all coined in Egypt, of 1148, 1st to 5th year, 32 p.; 6th year and after, 28 p.; of 1171, 26 p.; of 1187 to 1223, 24 p.;—*Old and New Kairieh*, also coined in Egypt, $9\frac{1}{2}$ p.;—New money of Egypt, size of an English sovereign, 20 carats fine, $102\frac{1}{2}$ piastres.

By this standard the *Silver Coins* are actually worth as follows:—the *Real Sham*, coined by Sultan Mustafa, $10\frac{1}{2}$ p.; by Abdoolhamid, $10\frac{1}{2}$ p.; the *Juzluk*, $12\frac{1}{2}$ p.; *Ikilik*, 10 p.; *Beshlik*, 16 p.; *Abou Turrah* and *Mis Beshlik*, and *New Beshlik*, 5 p.; *Nakishli*, 3 piastres.

The value of moneys, according to Mahomet Ali's firman, proclaimed at Damascus, on the 18th of April, 1838, is—

	Piastres. Paras.			Piastres. Paras.	
Old Gahadi	60	23	White Rubia Zarifa	3	3
New Gahadi	50	33	Red Rubia Zarifa	2	28
Old Fundukli	43	10	Old Gazi	20	5
Old Selimi Fundukli	36	12	Mamduchi or New Gazi	17	10
New Fundukli of 4 Tubi	34	9	Old Jussefi	174	4
Selimi from Constanti-			New Jussefi	173	11
nople	25	13	Old Beshlik	16	22
Old Mahbub of Egypt }	24	1	Juzluk	11	23
Mastafanè			Beshlik, with crescent }	2	24
Egyptian Mahbub, }	20	24	of 5		
old Mahmoudi			Altimishlik	3	1
Old Adli	17	16	Iklik	9	39
New Adli	15	28			

At these rates coins are ordered to be received and paid as legal tenders.

Besides these, there are gold coins of different value:—three struck by Mahmoud, Sultan, viz. the Old Double Gazi, 40 piastres; Half New Gazi, 10 p.; Quarter New Gazi, 5 p.—Four struck by Mahomet Ali, viz. Egyptian gold coin, 20 p.; half gold coin, 10 p.; quarter gold coin, 5 p.; small gold coin, Roubia, 4 p.; small gold coin, Roubia, 3 piastres.

The *commercial usages* in Syria, as to the purchases and sales of goods, are for the most part as in European commercial places. Purchases and sales are effected between merchants, through brokers, either for cash or on credit. The credits are usually of two, three, and four months, but the accounts are never balanced before double the expiration of the time granted; the debts are discharged by weekly protracted payments. The brokers are of two classes; those authorized by government, for public sales, and those who transact private business. Most purchases for export are paid for in ready money. Nowhere is there a regular exchange open with Europe; nearly the whole returns to England are in specie. In questions between a European and a native on a matter of for-

foreign trade, the French Code de Commerce is usually referred to as the best authority. In commercial transactions between nations, the decision rests wholly with the Divan.

Weights and measures, &c.—A miskal of gold, of 24 carats, is worth 13 shillings in England, and weighs $1\frac{1}{4}$ drams of 24 carats.—100 drams of silver pure, is worth, in England, £2 16s.—A kintal of England, of 112 lbs., weighs, in Syria, $41\frac{1}{4}$ okes.—100 English yards are 130 pikes, country measure.

The *Oke*=400 drams= $2\frac{1}{4}$ lbs. English, or 40 okes=1 cwt.; and 800 okes=1 ton.—640 okes=252 galls. liquid measure.—The *Rottolo*=720 drams=5 lbs. English.—100 *Habbies* of Yafa=39 quarters.— $\frac{1}{4}$ *Pikes*=1 yard.—The Syrian *Cantar* is 180 okes of Constantinople=504 lbs. English.

Exchange on London, in 1840, was 100 piastres to the pound sterling: on France, 4 piastres to the franc.

Revenue, &c.—In 1839 the revenue was about 83,500,000 piastres, say \$4,175,000; while the expenditure exceeded this sum by 50,000,000 piastres, say \$2,500,000; of which the army (14 regiments of infantry, 10 of cavalry, 48,000 regulars, 12,000 irregulars) cost \$5,566,000, and the civil list \$372,650. Besides this there are very considerable expenses of barracks, hospitals, fortifications, &c., which carry up the expenditure to 130,000,000 piastres.

Taking the revenue at £696,000 in 1836, the Aleppo district paid £152,000; that of Damascus, £210,000; of Tripoli, £78,000; of Yafa, 104,000; of Saida, 114,000; of Adana, 38,000; while Mt. Lebanon paid in all 58,750, of which about 27,000 went to its own Emir Beshir.

MEANS OF COMMUNICATION, MARTS, ETC.

The commerce of Syria, internal, external, and of transit, would be vastly benefited and increased could a good road connect the chief sea-ports, Scanderoon and (Beirut, or) Beyroot, with the chief interior entrepôts, Aleppo and Damascus, and both these latter with the Euphrates and with each other. Army wagons and artillery were passed by Ibrahim between Aleppo and Scanderoon by way of experiment. But the usual conveyance is by camels, mules, and horses. The chief caravan routes are from Egypt, through Gaza and Nabulus to Damascus; from Damascus south, through Hawran, east of the Jordan, and along the edge of the desert and of the Red Sea to Mecca; and from Damascus and Aleppo, east, to Anna or Hit, on the Euphrates, and so to Bagdad.

The roads are bad, especially in the rainy season, and are seldom or never repaired; of course wheel-carriages cannot be employed. Mules or camels are hired at 60 to 75 cents a day, and their ultimate cost is the same, as the heavier load of the camel makes up for the quicker pace of the mule. The English houses in Syria say, that if facilities were given to communication, a very wide field would be opened to commercial enterprise.

From Damascus, carriage costs, per 500 lbs., to Beirut, four to five Spanish dollars; through Homs and Hamah, to Aleppo, $7\frac{1}{4}$ to 8 dollars; to Bagdad, $17\frac{1}{4}$ to 20 dollars, and much less were the route secured against the Bedawin.

The expense of carriage is enormous on heavy and cheap goods; and if the Euphrates steam navigation succeeds, the facility, security, and

economy of the trade with Mosul, Bagdad, and Persia, through these places, would be much and speedily increased. The journey to and from Scanderoon is by camels 7 to 8, and by mules 5 to 6, in winter; and 5 to 9 with camels, and 4 to 5 with mules, in summer; the caravans, and those to Latakia, vary from 10 to 100 mules or camels. There are muleteers who are continually employed on these two roads, and always abundance of opportunities of transport; but during Ibrahim's government, when, as often happened, mules, muleteers, camels, and camel-drivers were impressed for government service, disastrous interruption of conveyance was experienced. The quarantines also, internal and external, were a useless and enormous nuisance. Whether these two hindrances to trade will be abated by the Porte, or succeeded by worse, now Syria has reverted to the sultan, remains to be seen. The communication with Mosul, Diarbekir, Bagdad, &c., is not so frequent, but is carried on in the same manner, with this exception, that the caravans are generally accompanied by the merchants who load them.

The communication of Aleppo with Europe is by posts sent to Beirut to meet the steamer from England, once a month, and by Tartars to Constantinople about once every six weeks; but there is no regularity in their time of starting. The post goes to Constantinople in 7 days in winter, and in 5 days in summer; the postage is about 4d. sterling for a single letter. The Tartar goes to Constantinople in 12 days, in good weather, and in bad weather he is frequently 20 days on his journey; the postage by him for a single letter is about 9d. He carries money at the rate of one half per cent for gold, and one third for silver. There are two opportunities per month, by horse post, for the conveyance of money to Beirut—one is in the hands of the British merchants, and its rates of carriage are three eighths per cent for gold, and one eighth for silver.

Imposts.—Goods from Aleppo to Mosul pay a transit duty of five dollars per mule or camel load, at Bir, when they cross the Euphrates, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on the invoice, at Mosul; but copper, iron, lead, soap, pepper, and pimento pay but two dollars and a half at Bir, and five dollars at Mosul, per load. At Arfa, Merdin, and Diarbekir is an import duty of 5 per cent on the value. Imports pay a duty at the port of landing of 3 per cent, nominally, on a low valuation, making it in most cases, say $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The Porte and Ibrahim's government laid duties on goods passing between their countries, respectively, but since the Porte has recovered Syria, these arrangements have probably been changed.

TRADE OF DAMASCUS.

Damascus, Dimeshk esh-Sham, or simply esh-Sham, i. e. the East, has always been, and will always be, a seat of commerce. Here the patriarch Abraham's steward Eliezer was brought up to business; and here trade is still conducted after the same manner probably as in the earliest times, in khans or caravanserais, called "inns" in Genesis, xlii. 27, and in bazaars, which are covered "streets," with alcoves, mentioned as far back as the times of Ahab, king of Israel, 2 Kings xx. 34. This primeval city, from its white walls and green environs, is called by the orientals "a pearl surrounded by emeralds," and nothing can be more beautiful than its position, whether approached from the desert to the east, or by the northern high road from Aleppo and Hamah. For many miles the city is girdled by fertile fields or gardens, which being watered by rivers part-

ed into sparkling streams, give to the vegetation, consisting principally of olive-trees, a remarkable freshness and beauty ; beyond are circling mountains, open on one side to the desert. Of all the cities of the east it is probably the most completely oriental—the city which has undergone the fewest changes. The European costume is scarcely ever seen ; and with few exceptions, the Frank settlers have adopted the Syrian dress. The exterior of the houses is mean and unattractive, but within many are ornamented in the most luxurious and costly style, supplied with fountains, and filled with flowering shrubs. The decorations of the ceilings and walls show a taste for the gorgeous, and the floors are frequently of marble, very finely tessellated ; many of the materials are imported from Europe, especially from Italy.

Some of the bazaars are very extensive, such as those of the shoemakers, of the goldsmiths, druggists, garment sellers, hardware dealers, traders in cotton stuffs, pipemakers, &c.—for each trade and business has ordinarily its peculiar covered street, devoted entirely to it. They are generally kept in good order, and abundantly supplied with goods. Long bargaining seems universal, and an apparent indifference is exhibited both by buyer and seller. A good many bazaars are kept by dervishes and sheikhs having a reputation for sanctity ; but they do not appear to be either more or less visited than those of their neighbors, nor does anybody seem disposed to pay an additional para for the article wanted, on account of the religious reputation of the seller.

The European goods are mostly bought on credit from the importer ; but the ordinary sales in the bazaars, to the consumer, are for ready money. When the transactions are carried on, on a large scale, with the caravan merchants, the payments are usually made on their return the following year. There are a considerable number of merchants from Persia, Mesopotamia, and the regions to the east, who find no difficulty in obtaining credit to a large amount, and many of them are extremely regular in their payments. This trade appears to be on the increase, and capable of much greater extension.

The wholesale sellers of goods have their counting-houses around the khans, and deposit their merchandise in various parts of them. Many of these khans are of great antiquity ; the great khan is a vast and superb building, filled with various commodities, and frequented by merchants from remote lands. Two Moslems, handsomely dressed, and who were apparently transacting business on a large scale, were introduced to us, says Mr. Bowring, as the leading merchants of Bagdad. In the khan we observed large quantities of cotton twist, for which the sale appeared very current. We learnt that, though the known buyers from the east easily obtained credit till the arrival of the next caravans, yet the richest among them paid ready money, and as these operations are large, they are of course among the most welcome visitors. Some of the caravans from Bagdad, indeed, have been known to consist of 5000 camels, every one carrying a quarter of a ton of goods, at an average charge of 20 dollars a kintal, so that the carriage alone of a caravan's cargo costs from \$100,000 to \$125,000. It is thought western goods may be more cheaply conveyed by the Cape of Good Hope ; but the merchants of the east, who themselves visit Damascus and Aleppo, have the advantage of accompanying or receiving their own goods, and making their own purchases, which of course, were it only for the benefits of assortment, is of much value to them.

The imports of Damascus in 1836 and '37, were as follows:

	1836.	1837.	
Loaf and crushed sugar	121,447	112,722	okes.
Copperas	3,914	12,219	"
Indigo	10,205	4,728	"
Pimento	3,118	3,584	"
Pepper	23,470	27,247	"
Tin (in bars)	4,503	5,055	"
Cochineal	7,434	11,644	"
Coffee, from Mocha and Europe	75,122	86,210	"
Sal ammoniac	1,128	3,794	"
Corals	45	167	"
Cotton twist	115,622	137,510	"
Long-cloths	32,981	25,952	pieces.
Prints	36,095	30,537	"
Woollen cloths	6,401	2,819	"
Muslins	29,088	25,409	"
Rice (baskets of 40 rottoli each)	13,500	12,500	baskets.
Silk, from Lyons	—	1,101	pieces.
Writing paper	19,299	10,540	reams.
Wrapping paper	5,940	2,436	"
Red skull-caps	15,142	11,291	doz.
Tin plates	106	169	boxes.
Iron	328	—	cantars.
Indigo, from Bagdad	7,339	1,071	okes.
Tombag	302,000	117,210	"
Tobacco	230,878	190,577	"

The city has 66 Mohammedan commercial establishments, which trade with Europe, with a capital of 20 to 25 million piastres; eight have over a million each; two, (Abderachman Ashim and Mahomet Said Aga Bagdadi,) who trade with Bagdad, have one and a half to two millions; one (Haji Hussein Chertifchi,) is supposed to have two to two and a half millions in trade. The larger houses generally trade with Europe and Bagdad, the smaller with Smyrna and Constantinople. About a dozen are in the Egyptian trade with Cairo and Alexandria; one or two with Mecca and Medina, and a few with Jerusalem, Nabulus, and other parts of Palestine. One of the principal houses trades with the East Indies. The average capital of these foreign merchants is about £4,000.

There are 29 Christian merchants in foreign trade, with four and a half to five and a half million piastres; the wealthiest by far is Hanah Hanouri, who has one and a half to two millions of capital, and trades with England, France, and Italy, besides being a considerable manufacturer of Damascus stuffs. Several others of the Hanouri family are in the foreign trade, and are among the most opulent of the Christian merchants. A great proportion of the Christian commercial houses have connections with England, but are, as a body, less opulent than the Mohammedans or Jews, most of them not having more capital than £250 to £1000.

As a class, the Jewish foreign merchants of Damascus are the most wealthy; their 24 houses have 16 to 18 million piastres, and average £6,000 to £7,000 each; nine have from one to one and a half million piastres; two, the most opulent, (Mourad Farhi and Nassim Farhi,) have

more than one and a half million each. Most of them trade with England.

There are 107 shopkeepers who retail British goods, with a capital of 1,600,000 to 2,100,000 piastres, averaging £150 to £180 each. Their bazaars, like those of Aleppo, are kept up to a great extent on the capitals of those who sell them goods on credit. Few possess £1000 capital, and half of it is considered very respectable and would command a considerable extent of credit. There are 15 retailers of woollen cloths, who are proportionally the wealthiest of the shopkeepers, and have 650,000 to 800,000 piastres, averaging £400 to £500 each; the wealthiest double, and the poorest £200 to £500. There are about 80 grocers and druggists, averaging 10,000 piastres each.

Engaged in the stuff manufactures are 14 Mohammedans, with £200 to £1,200 each, in all 600,000 to 750,000 piastres, averaging to each £400 to £500. The two most opulent are dervishes. The 45 Christian manufacturers have 1,100,000 to 1,500,000 piastres, averaging to each £220 to £335. The largest possess £1,000, the smallest £50 to £60.

The *Tribunal of Commerce*, at Damascus, consists of 9 Moslems, 2 Christians, and 1 Jew; a proportion not very fairly arranged in reference to the numbers of the different religious bodies; but one of the principal Christian merchants assured Mr. B. that, on the whole, they were tolerably satisfied with its decisions, and the Moslem majority seldom showed any disposition to act unfairly to Christians litigants.

TRADE OF ALEPPO.

Aleppo, or Haleb, the ancient Helbon, is situated midway between the Euphrates, where it approaches nearest to the sea, and the Mediterranean, being some 90 miles, by the road, from Suedia, at the mouth of the Orontes, as well as from Scanderoon; 110 from the port of Latakia, 47 geographical miles in a straight line from steam navigation on the Euphrates, and 33 from the Orontes river. It is about 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, surrounded by an undulating country, very stony and barren in many places, and except in its immediate vicinity without wood, and thinly populated. Gardens cover all the roofs of the city, and seen from above, it is a succession of terraces, over which is spread a rank and luxuriant vegetation, looking like an irregular plain, under which the multitudinous inhabitants circulate—the streets being all of them covered in and lighted only by gratings from above.

The local position of Aleppo is in many respects admirable for trade. It has an abundance of warehouses, which are at a low rent, though the repairs are heavy; it communicates, at the distance of a few hours, with the Euphrates, and its khans and coffee-houses are crowded with travellers from every part of the east. There are habits of luxury in the city itself which create a considerable demand for articles of consumption; and it is by far the most important of all the Syrian depots. Its habits and traditions are more commercial than those of any other part of Syria, and its people are fond of talking of the mercantile greatness of their forefathers. Here were formerly 40 Venetian houses, but its trade has completely changed hands. In about 1832, English merchants began to establish themselves here, and now there are several houses carrying on a large business both with Aleppo and the surrounding district, as well as with the ancient Mesopotamia, Persia, and the country bordering on the Eu-

phrates. Situated about midway between the desert and the Mediterranean, and being a convenient place of centralization for the various caravans from the east, it is likely to grow in wealth and influence, if commerce be allowed to establish its ramifications, and if security of person or property give those feelings of confidence without which all enterprise is checked or destroyed.

Aleppo is the emporium for the north of Syria, and is connected in extensive commercial transactions with Diarbekir, and the upper parts of Anatolia, and with Merdin, Mosul, and Bagdad. This trade, however, is affected by the new channels which are opened from the Euxine, through Trebizond and Erzroom, supplying the north of Kurdistan and Mesopotamia, and the trade, either from India or England, by the Persian Gulf, supplying Bagdad and the south of Mesopotamia. There is also a trade with Persia, through both of these channels, to the northern and southern provinces; but such has been the revulsion in consequence of Persia's being supplied and overstocked, through both the Euxine and the gulf, that the prices of British manufacture are frequently lower at Bagdad than at Aleppo, which place has even received supplies from Persia. The great drawback to the extension of the British trade of Aleppo, including that of Mesopotamia and Babylonia, and of Damascus with the latter country, is the want of articles of export; with the exception of one or two, the whole of the returns to England being made partly in bills of exchange, but principally in specie. The distance and expense of land carriage, and the duties of transit, and at the place of sale also, operate against this Aleppo trade in competition with the other route; but these are in some degree balanced by the greater acceptability of the Syrian ports.

With Orfa, the Aleppo trade is carried on by the natives; and its 20 Turkish and Christian merchants do not trade direct to Europe. Their capital is some \$40,000 or \$50,000, but their trade greatly exceeds that amount, and three fifths of it is for British manufactures, chiefly cotton twist, calicoes, some prints, muslins, and nankeens; the remainder is in colonial produce and different articles of the country. Orfa supplies Aleppo and the north of Syria with grain, chiefly wheat and barley; and the communication is active by Bir.

The trade with Diarbekir is similar, and by 25 Turkish and Christian merchants, with \$75,000 to \$80,000 of capital; \$35,000 worth are taken from Aleppo, of which \$25,000 are for British manufactures, and \$10,000 for colonials. The return is in galls and specie. These merchants, like those of Orfa, often obtain, through the European Aleppo agents, goods direct on their own account from England.

The Merdin trade requires about \$10,000 worth of British manufactures, and \$5,000 of colonials, and is conducted by 4 or 5 merchants, with \$15,000 to \$25,000. The returns and trade are like those of Orfa and Diarbekir.

The trade to Mosul engages 25 Turkish and Christian merchants of Mosul, the wealthiest of Mesopotamia, with a capital of \$170,000 to \$200,000, and altogether they may be considered richer and of higher standing than those at Orfa, Diarbekir, and Merdin. Mosul takes annually from Aleppo \$150,000 worth, mostly British manufactures, and the rest colonials; but since the fines and severity of the sultan's pacha, who has lately occupied it, the trade has decreased. Galls and some specie are the usual

returns. The inland duty to this place is heavy, but it gives a free passage to other places.

There is a trade between Mosul, Merdin, Diarbekir, and Orfa, with Erzroom, Karpout, and Trebizond, which cannot be specified or calculated; but it consists in most of the articles received from Europe and in articles of the country. It is susceptible of extension both in regard to the produce of the country, in galls, sheep's wool, Persian yellow berries from Kaisserieh, goats' wool, beef, calves, and other hides; and for the consumption on that line of country, of cotton twist, calicoes, manufactures generally, and colonials, which trade is carried on in the same way as the trade between Mesopotamia and Aleppo.

The trade of Aleppo and Damascus with Bagdad, the former through the desert across the Euphrates, at Anna or at Hit, and the latter across the desert, by way of Tadmor, also traversing the Euphrates at Hit, is chiefly carried on by Moslems and Christians; some few Europeans are engaged in it, but hitherto British merchants have seldom adventured on it. There is not often more than one caravan, of from 700 to 1000 camels, annually, between Aleppo and Bagdad, and one of 1,000 to 1,200 or 1,500 between Damascus and Bagdad. The goods sent thither from Aleppo and Damascus are chiefly cotton twist, calicoes, shirtings, prints, imitation shawls, woollen cloths, some dyes, and an assortment, varying in quality according to the market, of paper of all kinds, pig lead, cloths, woollens, French and Belgian, manufactured cotton of all sorts, imitation British shawls, steel, coral, iron, cutlery from Germany, files, pins and needles, fire-arms, tinsel from Germany, looking-glasses, cochineal, St. Martha wood, logwood, woollen caps, tin in bars, sulphur, tin plates, and gold and silver thread. The chief articles received in return, besides the principal one of specie, are Persian and Hussineeh tombag, galls, buffalo hides, East India indigo, pearls, Cashmere shawls, some Mocha coffee, and an assortment of Persian shawls, Fernambouk (Brazil) wood, East India muslins, called madapolans, East India muslins, embroidered, elephant tusks or teeth, gum galbanum, gum ammoniac, cherry sticks for pipes, Persian saffron, gum tragacanth, assafoetida, East India long-cloths, and dates.

The cost of carriage across the desert is enhanced chiefly because of the insecurity from the roving Arab tribes, whom the merchants of Bagdad are often obliged to compromise with, giving considerable sums and presents to the chiefs of the Shammah and Aneze ('Anazeh) tribes, at Bagdad, who become responsible for the safety of the caravan from plunder by their hordes in the desert. This transit duty varies according to the value of the caravan. The Aghali Arabs also, who act as guards, and accompany the caravan, receive presents, and are paid as a kind of military and protecting escort.

A portion of the transit trade of Syria indeed, is in the hands of the Bedawin (wandering or nomade) Arabs, who traffic with the native dealers for different articles of imported produce, and bring the produce of their flocks in payment. They generally come from the skirts of the desert, whence they communicate with the tribes stationed further east. Ibrahim's highly useful measures to settle these Bedawins in agricultural pursuits on the borders of Syria, have been wise and eminently successful. But under the less energetic Turkish rule, to which they have again become nominally subject, they will probably return to their former roving and predatory life.

There are at Aleppo about 30 Christian houses which trade with England, France, Italy, and Germany, with a capital of \$700,000 to \$900,000; the houses ranging from \$5,000 to \$50,000 and \$200,000. There are 7 with a capital of over \$50,000 each; Fathalla Cubbe, the most opulent, is thought to possess \$150,000 to \$200,000. Nearly 70 Mohammedan merchants trade with Europe, having \$325,000 to \$375,000 capital; the houses ranging from \$5,000 to the highest capital, that of Agi Wosa Muaket, which is \$65,000 to \$70,000; the average capital is £3,000 to £4,000 sterling. Besides these there are 15 Turkish merchants who trade in European commodities, but not with Europe direct. Their largest capital is \$15,000, and a few have not more than one sixth as much; the total capital of the 15 is about \$100,000 to \$125,000. There are 10 Jewish European traders, with \$100,000 to \$125,000 capital—the wealthiest of whom has \$50,000. Independently of the above, who are all Aleppo merchants, there are settled in Aleppo many opulent bankers, whose capital cannot be easily estimated, and many merchants of Bagdad, Mosul, Diarbekir, Orfa, Constantinople, and Smyrna.

There are more than 50 shopkeepers who sell the manufactures of Aleppo, some with scarcely any capital—the richest with \$4,000 to \$5,000; the whole being not more than \$60,000 to \$80,000. Twenty-one sell silk, the wealthiest having \$3,500 capital; the whole capital engaged in this traffic is from \$11,250 to \$14,000. Nineteen shopkeepers sell cloths from France and Belgium, none of whom possess more than \$2,250; the whole amount employed is \$16,050 to \$20,500. There are 70 who sell British manufactures, with \$37,500 to \$44,000; many of them have but about \$150 to \$500, but the average is \$500; they therefore depend very much on the accidents of sales, and hence the habit of collecting from them their receipts from week to week. There are 35 druggists, the richest of whom, called chief of the druggists, has a capital of \$1,250 to \$1,500, and their united capital is \$16,250 to \$21,000; averaging from \$250 or \$300 up to \$1,250 to each dealer. Thus a very large proportion of the trade of Aleppo is carried on by the general system of credit established there, and almost all the shopkeepers depend for the payment of their debts on the sales they are able to effect. It is, in fact, as if the shops were lent to the merchants for the disposal of their goods in retail. The merchants collect their receipts by a system of incessant dunning, employing for that purpose a race of dragomans, who wear a peculiar costume, and are for the most part native Christians.

The language of Aleppo is Arabic. Nearly all sales are made by brokers, paid by the seller, at the rate of 1 per cent; the British houses charge for commissions, charges, &c. on sales, 13½ per cent, in all. Credits are for 4 months, but extended often to 2 years. Accounts are kept in piastres and paras, but the currency is very various; hence, and for the want of any proper facilities for transferring money, there is an enormous consumption of time by the collecting and counting of moneys. Sovereigns pass current for 103 piastres; German dollars for 20½ p.; Spanish dollars for 21½ p.; Dutch ducats for 47 p.; Venetian ducats for 47½ p.—though the rates for these coins published by the government, are, respectively, 97½, 20, 21, 45¼, 46¼ piastres. The cantar of Aleppo is 187½ okes; the rottolo is the 100th part of a cantar; the Constantinople oke, for cochineal, is about 2¼ lbs. avoirdupois—the Egyptian is 4 per cent lighter: 1000 drams of silk are 7 lbs.; the pike is 27 inches.

There is an allowance on sugar of 2 per cent for tare; on coffee, of the real tare; and 10 per cent trett on pepper, of the real tare; and 5 per cent trett on indigo and cochineal, of the real tare. In purchasing galls the buyer pays the brokerage, and has an allowance of 5 per cent trett in lieu of it. Silk is bought nett. Cotton and wool are bought nett, or, if in hair bags, the bags are weighed as wool or cotton, and no charge made. The exchange is calculated at 105 piastres per £1 sterling; and all charges, tares and tretts on this side are taken off.

The manufactures of Aleppo are chiefly soap, stuffs, and gold and silver thread. There are 30 soap factories at Aleppo, and nearly half as many at Edlip, employing in all 1000 men, at 25 to 50 cents per day. The soap is composed of 17 parts oil, 11 soda, and 6 lime. The quantity produced varies, according to the oil crop, from 500 to 1,500 tons annually. In the years 1837-8, it was 1,500 tons—prime cost 18,700 piastres (\$935;) the selling prices are 2,000 and 1,900 piastres (\$100 and \$95) per cask. The soapmakers of Aleppo supply not only all northern Syria, but also Bagdad, Mosul, Merden, Diarbekir, Orfa, Marash, Aintab, and their neighborhood.

The manufacture of stuffs, for which Aleppo is famous throughout the east, is still carried on extensively. They consist of silk stuffs, with gold and silver thread; silk and cotton flowered and striped, and striped cotton only, called nankeens. Few modern improvements have been introduced into the machinery employed; but the fabrics are, many of them, graceful and beautiful, and costly where silver and gold have been introduced. A considerable number of children are employed to assist the spinners and weavers; they are most of them Christians; and I have seldom seen, says Bowring, a race so remarkable for graceful proportions of body, fine features and expression of countenance. Their appearance was that of robust and glowing health, with a most cheerful turn of mind, and sprightliness of conversation. They earn tolerable wages, usually from 25 to 50 cents a day, particularly those engaged in making the richer stuffs, for which there is some demand in Turkey, and in the provinces to the east and northeast of Syria. Their best machinery is that for making gold and silver thread. The instruments are well constructed, and worked with much dexterity. The weavers are for the most part gathered into large shops, in each of which two or more workmen are employed by a particular manufacture, and they are paid by the pike for their fabrics. There are no very extensive manufacturers; the looms belong to the weavers, but the raw materials are furnished by the masters. There are about 4,000 looms, and 6,000 operatives old and young, and they yearly produce \$1,275,000 worth of fabrics. The rich stuffs are used by brides and women of wealth; all the other sorts are used for the every-day outer garments of both men and women as extensively as broadcloth is in England. The manufacturers have been for some years tending to decay, but a revival has again taken place, principally in consequence of the importation of a portion of the half-worked material, such as twist and yarn, from England. British manufactures have been gradually intruding on those of Syria. They were much lower priced, but have been found less durable, and many of the Aleppine stuffs are again making their way into popular favor. Some of the intelligent manufacturers believe that the cotton twist, woollen yarn, flax thread, and other similar articles which

are to a certain extent raw materials, would enable the Syrians to extend their manufactures.

The art of dyeing seems well understood, and the colors are bright and lasting. There are about 100 dyeing and printing shops in Aleppo, employing about 1,500 persons, who earn from 25 to 70 cents per day. The dyeing is chiefly of the silk and cotton yarns used for the stuffs, and it is all fast; false colors, however brilliant, are not at all esteemed here. The printing is also fast, but it is in a very rude state compared with the other manufactures here; the chief trade is printing their handkerchiefs, used by women and lads to tie round the head, and also as veils for the faces of the women when going abroad.

Of gold and silver thread there are 15 manufactories, employing about 60 persons, who earn from 25 cents to \$1 per day. The bulk of this produce is used for the richer stuffs of Aleppo, but some goes to Bagdad and other places in the east.

The imports of Aleppo from Great Britain, in 1836-7, were:—*Sugar*, 358 sacks, 484 barrels, each sack weighing 25 rottioli, barrels weighing each 50 rottioli; ruling prices 10 to 12 piastres per rottolo the barrels, and 10 to 10½ piastres per rottolo the sacks. The sugar in barrels is English crushed refined, and that in sacks East Indian. Two thirds of the above quantity is consumed at Aleppo, and one third is sent into the interior.—*Coffee*, 792 bags, each weighing 30 rottioli=23,760 rottioli; ruling prices 16½ to 17½ piastres per rottolo; one third is consumed at Aleppo, and the other two thirds go to Mesopotamia and the interior.—*Indigo*, 170 cases, weighing each 50 rottioli=8,500 rottioli; ruling prices 180 to 220 piastres per rottolo; two thirds are the consumption of Aleppo, and one third goes away into the interior.—*Cochineal*, 84 barrels, each weighing 70 okes=5,880 okes; ruling prices 130 to 150 piastres per rottolo; one half consumed at Aleppo, and the other half for the interior.—*Copperas*, 121 cases, each weighing 60 rottioli=7,260 rottioli; ruling prices 200 to 350 piastres; one half consumed at Aleppo, and the remainder for the interior.—*Tin Bars*, 163 barrels, each 45 rottioli=7,335 rottioli; ruling prices 28 to 34 piastres; one third consumed at Aleppo, and two thirds for the interior.—*Tin Plates*, 84 cases of 225 leaves; ruling prices 250 to 280 piastres per case of 225; two thirds the consumption of Aleppo, and one third for the interior.—*Pepper*, 701 bags of 15 rottioli each=10,515 rottioli; ruling prices 11½ to 12 piastres per rottolo; one half consumed at Aleppo, and one half for the interior.—*Pimento*, 40 bags of 30 rottioli each=1,200 rottioli; the ruling prices from 12 to 12½ piastres per rottolo; the half is consumed in Aleppo, the other half goes to Mesopotamia.—*Salammoniac*, 49 cases, 31 barrels, weighing each 50 rottioli=2,450 rottioli; ruling prices at Aleppo from 24 to 26 piastres per rottolo; one third consumed at Aleppo, and two thirds go into the interior and to Mesopotamia.—*Rice*, 540 bags, each weighing 15 rottioli; ruling prices from 5½ to 6½ piastres, all of which is consumed at Aleppo.—*Cotton Water Twist*, 3,877 bales, each bale valued at from 2,000 to 2,200 piastres; one third is consumed at Aleppo, and two thirds go to Mesopotamia, Armenia, and as far as Trebizond.—*Mule Yarn*, 600 bales, each bale valued at 3,200 to 3,400 piastres; two thirds of this are consumed at Aleppo, and one third goes into the interior.—*Manufactures*, 5,336 bales and 53 cases. It is impossible to state the quantity in each bale, and what description of goods, which consist of all sorts of British manufactures; each bale is generally valued

at from 8,000 to 5,000 piastres, and a small portion at from 6,000 to 8,000 ; Aleppo consumes half, and the rest goes into Mesopotamia, Armenia, and as far as Persia.

The imports of Aleppo from Germany, in 1836-7, were:—*Cloth*, 44 bales, which come from Trieste, each bale containing 12 pieces=528 pieces ; the value of each bale is estimated at from 8,000 to 10,000 piastres, according to quality ; half the above quantity is consumed at Aleppo, and the remainder goes into the interior.—*Tarboches* or red caps, 163 cases of 120 dozen each=19,560 dozen ; ruling prices from 35 to 40 piastres per dozen ; one third for the consumption of Aleppo, and two thirds for the interior.—*Divers manufactures*, 94 bales ; little or none of these are of British fabric, they are principally printed handkerchiefs from Germany ; each bale is valued at from 5,000 to 8,000 piastres ; one third is consumed at Aleppo, and the remainder is for the interior.—*Glass ware*, 50 cases, which are consumed at Aleppo, and being sold at retail to people coming from the interior, a small portion is also sent to Bagdad.

The imports of Aleppo from Italy, in 1836-7, were:—*Sugar*, 73 cases and 100 bags, one with another weighing 50 rottioli ; the ruling prices at Aleppo 12½ to 13 piastres per rottiolo ; two thirds consumed at Aleppo, and one third goes into Mesopotamia ; total weight imported 8,650 rottioli.—*Coffee*, 321 bags, at 35 rottioli each=11,235 rottioli ; ruling prices 17 to 18½ piastres ; one third consumed at Aleppo, and two thirds exported.—*Tarboches*, or red skull-caps, 255 cases, generally of Tuscan manufacture ; each case of 70 dozen=17,850 dozen ; ruling prices from 70 to 120 piastres per dozen ; one third consumed at Aleppo, and two thirds for the interior.—*Pepper*, 237 bags of 15 rottioli each=3,555 rottioli ; ruling prices 11 to 12 piastres per rottiolo ; half the quantity for the consumption of Aleppo, and the remainder for the interior.—*Indigo*, 11 cases, weighing 50 rottioli=550 rottioli ; ruling prices 180 to 220 piastres per rottiolo ; two thirds for the consumption of Aleppo, and one third for Mesopotamia.—*Coral*, 25 cases ; this article is of various qualities, there are cases valued at 10,000 piastres, and others as high as 50,000 : about 8 cases to 10 are sold in Aleppo to the Persians and Bedawin, and the remainder is sent to Bagdad and Persia, say one third to Aleppo and two thirds sent out.—*Cochineal*, 82 cases, weighing 70 okes each=5,740 okes ; the ruling prices at Aleppo are 130 to 150 piastres per oke ; half for Aleppo, and the remainder is drawn by the interior.—*Paper*, 166 bales, each bale of 20 reams=3,320 reams ; ruling prices 25 to 40 piastres per ream ; half consumed at Aleppo, and the remainder goes into the interior.—*Manufactures*, 293 bales, of all sorts, of which a considerable portion is British manufactures bought in the Italian depots ; each bale is estimated at 3,000 to 5,000 piastres ; about one third of which, in 97 bales, is consumed in Aleppo, and the remaining two thirds go into Mesopotamia.—*Cloth* : none comes from Italy, or at most only a bale or two during the year.

The imports of Aleppo from France, in 1836-7, were:—*Sugar*, 114 barrels, 766 cases, weighing one with another 50 rottioli each ; the ruling prices at Aleppo, during these two years, were 12½ to 13 piastres per rottiolo ; two thirds consumed at Aleppo, and one third goes into the interior and to Mesopotamia ; total weight 44,000 rottioli.—*Coffee*, 336 barrels, 725 bags, weighing one with another 35 rottioli each ; ruling prices 17 to 18 piastres per rottiolo ; one third consumed at Aleppo, and two thirds go out ; total weight 36,750 rottioli.—*Cochineal*, 35 barrels, 68 cases, weigh-

ing 70 okes each, and the prices ruled from 130 to 150 piastres per oke; half for the consumption of Aleppo, and the remaining half for the interior; total weight 7,210 okes.—*Tarbonches*, 64 cases, which came from France, but are manufactured at Tunis; each case contains 50 dozen; ruling prices 200 to 400 piastres per dozen: the total quantity is exported, half of which is consumed at Aleppo, and the remainder for the interior.—*Pepper*, 135 bags, each weighing 30 rottoli, total 4,050 rottoli; prices ruling from 11 to 12 piastres per rottolo; half for the consumption of Aleppo, and the other half for Mesopotamia.—*Pimento*, 129 bags, weighing 30 rottoli each, total weight 3,780 rottoli; ruling prices from 12 to 12½ piastres per rottoli; half for the consumption of Aleppo, and half for the interior.—*Indigo*, 4 cases, weighing 50 rottoli each, at 180 to 200 piastres per rottoli; two thirds for the consumption of this town, and one third goes into the interior; total weight 200 rottoli.—*Manufactured Silks*, these come from Lyons; only ten cases were imported during the years 1836 and 1837; each case contains 10 pieces, each piece of 35 pikes; ruling prices 10 to 60 piastres per pike: it is not consumed at Aleppo or Mesopotamia, but it is an article which the Persians generally purchase.—*Wrapping-paper*, 280 bales, each bale 30 reams, at 10 to 12 piastres per ream; half that quantity is consumed at Aleppo, and the remainder goes into the interior.—*Cloth*: 398 bales imported during the two last years; each bale contains 12 pieces; but the cloth from France is of such different qualities that it is difficult to name a price; each bale is valued from 4,000 to 6,000 piastres, and as far as 8,000; half the quantity for the consumption of Aleppo, and the remainder is sent and taken out.—*Manufactures*: only 9 bales have come during the two years, consisting principally of prints of Switzerland, and in very small quantities. The ordinary mode of payment in Aleppo for manufactured goods is by bonds or promissory notes, due at a given period, which serve to a certain extent as bills of exchange. It is not usual to discharge them in full when the time stipulated for payment arrives. A small part is paid, and written on the back of the bond; many months often pass before the whole is paid. Collectors go round, either weekly or according to circumstances, to gather in what they can on account of those bonds. They are used often by the holders to make other payments with, but they are not endorsed, and the risk of the bond is transferred to the party who consents to receive it.

The annual consumption of Aleppo, and the places it supplies, was, in 1838—

	<i>In Aleppo.</i>	<i>In other places.</i>
Twist	120,000½ lbs.	165,000½ lbs.
Gray cotton	500,000 yards ¾ inches	500,000 yards ¾ inches
White do	375,000 “ ¾ “	375,000 “ ¾ “
Shawls	5,000 pieces	10,000 pieces
Muslins	60,000 yards	140,000 yards
Printed cottons . .	1,500 pieces	3,000 pieces
do handkerchiefs	3,000 dozen	27,000 dozen
Tin plates	100 boxes	
do in bars	90 cwt.	360 cwt.
Sugar, refined . . .	50 tons	50 tons
Cochineal	114,560 lbs.	14,560 lbs.
Indigo	10,920 “	18,200 “

	<i>In Aleppo.</i>	<i>In other places.</i>
Pepper and Pimento	350 cwt.	350 cwt.
Coffee	500 "	1,000 "
Broadcloth	600 pieces	1,200 pieces
Dye woods	10 tons	40 tons
Copperas	10 "	10 "
Salammoniac	30 cwt.	120 cwt.
Ironmongery	30 bales	
Earthenware	50 "	
Window glass	150 "	
Tarbonches	8,400 dozen	8,400 dozen
French silks and velvets	10,000 yards	
Paper, writing	2,000 reams	2,000 reams
do packing	1,500 "	325 "

Prices current in 1838, and value in English money.

Pepper	5½ piastres per oke	3½d. per lb.
Sugar, crushed . . .	8 " "	51s. 0 per cwt.
Brazil, white	6½ " "	40s. 9d. " "
Coffee do	19 " per rottolo	60s. 0 " "
Mocha	25 " "	80s. 6d. " "
Indigo, copper and } violet, fine }	270 " "	8s. 10d. per lb.
Good	230 " "	7s. 6d. " "
Low	170 " "	5s. 6d. " "
Cochineal, silver . .	1,143 " per oke	8s. 6d. " "
Tin, in bars	36 " per rottolo	133s. per cwt.
Twist ½½	76 " per 10 lbs.	14s. 0½d. per lb.
" ½½	80 " "	15s. 0½d. " "
" ¾¾	84 " "	16s. 0½d. " "
Domestics, 45 inches	36 yards, 11½ lbs.	110p. per p. 16s. 9d.
" 33 "	24 " 6½ "	62p. " 10s.
Galls, in sorts . . .	1,200 piastres per cantar	55s. per cwt.
" black	1,500 " "	68s. 6d. " "

The population supplied by the Aleppo trade, in northern Syria, is in Aleppo 60 to 70,000; its immediate neighborhood, 5,000; Antioch, 10,000; Edlip, 2,500; Hamah, 30,000; Latakia, 5,000; Tarsous, 7,000; Adana, 20,000; Killis, 2,000; Aintab, 3,500; smaller cities and rural districts, 36,250; total, 181,250 in Upper Syria; these consume two thirds of its importations. Aleppo also supplies the districts of Armenia, from Arabkir southwards, and partly the district of Amasia. To the direct north it supplies Marash, and its neighborhood; to the east and southeast, Orfa, Diarbekir, Merdin, Mosul, near by, and a considerable caravan is yearly sent to Bagdad. One third of its total imports are taken off by these channels. The imports are chiefly from England direct, Marseilles, Leghorn, and Trieste.

The price of labor is 12 piastres per day for a mason or carpenter; shoemakers, tailors, printers, and dyers, have no fixed rate, but are associated each among themselves, and divide the profits. A weaver has 5 to 10 piastres per pike, and can make 1 to 2 pikes a day; a porter makes 8 or 10 piastres; a servant has 60 to 200 piastres per month. Bread is

dear, 60 paras per rottolo ; wheat, 75 piastres per shimbul ; mutton, 4 piastres per oke ; fowls, 3 piastres each ; eggs, 4 paras each ; and rice, 3 piastres per oke ; oil, 8, soap, 6½, butter 8 piastres per oke ; milk, 30 paras per rottolo ; grapes 50, apples, apricots, &c. 40 to 60 paras per rottolo ; shoes, 15 to 22 piastres per pair ; wine, 3 piastres per oke ; arrack, 7 piastres per oke. Shops rent for 100 to 1,000 piastres per annum ; houses, 100 to 5,000 piastres.

Of the exports of Aleppo, there is no possibility of getting a correct account, because they are made on Aleppo account from Tarsous, Latakia, and Scanderoon, and much of the produce never enters Aleppo. The trade between Aleppo and these places is carried on by natives chiefly, who purchase from importers, sell the goods to the producers against the coming crops of silk, cotton, wool, &c. ; and, receiving payment in these articles, resell them to the importers, for shipment at the nearest port.

The products of Syria, and those brought into Syria from the interior, exported on Aleppo account, are:—*Cotton*, grown on the plains of Tarsous and Adana, and in Caramania, and from Edlip, in all 2,650,000 lbs., for the three years 1835, 6, 7 : 1,400 cantars of this were shipped to Britain, 11,200 to Marseilles, and 3,000 to Greece. More is sent to France than elsewhere, because it is there made use of for wicking, being too seedy and short for English use. Average price, 1,000 piastres per cantar ; average export 27,000 cantars.—*Silk*, raised at Antioch, 9,000,000 drams, three fourths of which goes to Marseilles and Leghorn, none to Britain, and the rest is consumed in the country ; average price, 400 piastres per 1,000 drams, average exports 6,750,000 drams. Of Amasia silk, from Tocat, there came in 1830 to 1837, respectively, 180, 165, 190, 60, 80, 12, 40, 60 bales, each containing 25,000 drams : giving an annual importation of 2,487,500 drams, averaging 450 piastres per 1,000 drams ; of this, one third was shipped, and two thirds are retained for use in the city.—*Wool*, from Tarsous and Adana, 1,500 cantars ; from Aleppo, and the Arabs, 850 cantars ; 200 cantars were shipped to England, and the rest, except 600 for home consumption, is sent to Marseilles and Leghorn ; average price (for 1835, 6, and 7) 600 piastres per cantar ; average export 1,750 cantars.—*Galls*, from Killis 150, Merdin and Diarbekir 500, Mosul and Bagdad 700, in all 1,350 cantars ; average price for 1835, 6, 7, 1,700 piastres per cantar ; average exports, 1,050 cantars.

Not a fifteenth part of the imports from England are paid in exports : but about 20,000,000 piastres per annum, in old Turkish coins, were exported in 1836 and '37. Cotton is of too short staple, and too seedy, and silk is reeled too long (8 feet in diameter) for English use ; but the quality of the silk is 5 to 10 per cent better than the Persian : but sometimes a considerable part of the exports to Leghorn and Marseilles are for account of the importers of British goods. Wool is adapted to British manufactures, but its price has been too high for shipment. Galls, alone, are sent in any considerable quantity to Britain, and these not produced in Syria. It is therefore highly important to foreign trade that the products of Syria should be increased, as the supply of old coin is daily becoming shorter, and must soon be exhausted. The country is capable of producing tenfold its present produce, but its increase requires better communications, better security of property, in fine, a better government ; and thus the riches of the people being increased, the benefits would extend to all who traded with them, as they would of course require more imports and pay

better for them : at present the Syrians are retrenching, leaving off their ornaments, &c., and becoming discouraged in exertion.

Of the seaports of Syria, the chief are—Tarsous, with its port, Mersin, Scanderoon, or Alexandretta, Latakia, Tripoli, and Beyroot, or Beirut.

Tarsus (Tersoons) is on a river navigable for small boats, and within 12 miles of the sea. Its port or roadstead is Mersin, about four hours to the westward, where the anchorage is perfectly safe all the year round, according to the testimony of intelligent captains, who declare it preferable to Scanderoon. The produce of the country consists principally in cotton, wool, grain of all kinds, sesam, beeswax, old copper, goats' hair, goat skins, ox and buffalo skins, and hair sacks. The consumption of European exports is small at present, but might be made considerable by attracting towards Tarsus the commerce of the interior, which would offer on this market the following valuable articles in any quantities, and take in return various sorts of European produce and manufacture : galls, madder roots, yellow berries, valonia, scammony, gum tragacanth, jalap, hare-skins, and fox-skins, which might be more easily brought here than to Smyrna, and at a cheaper rate, from the distance overland being less.

Adana is situated to the northeast of Tarsus, about six hours further inland, and has 20,000 inhabitants. Its means of maintaining an active commerce are still greater than those of Tarsus, and its produce of the same kind, but in greater abundance. This most flourishing portion of the Ottoman empire, where the people are not so debased as in Syria, offers a great promise of the finest opening for European trade, provided sufficient encouragement be given to the inhabitants of the interior to bring their goods to the Tarsus market, which port would soon rival Smyrna. Adana offers, *as it is*, a great field for speculations of every kind.

Latakia is a very indifferent port, small, with a dangerous entrance, and it contains about 10,000 inhabitants, and receives some thirty or forty European vessels annually, in the following proportion : 8 or 10 French, 8 or 10 Sardinian, 5 or 6 Austrian, and 3 or 4 English. There are four European establishments, chiefly acting as agents for the merchants of Aleppo. It produces oil, grain, and much tobacco. Its port is unsafe except in the summer months, and so incumbered with falling ruins that not more than two or three vessels at a time can anchor in it.

The port of *Tripoli* is very small—in fact cannot be considered a harbor for vessels of a moderate tonnage. The anchorage is a roadstead which can only be made use of in the summer, but which is very dangerous in the winter, and particularly at the equinoxes. Tripoli has 15,000 inhabitants. There arrived here in 1835, 6 and 7—British vessels, none ; French, 27 ; Sardinian, 2 ; Tuscan, 5 ; Greek, 12 ; Arab, 53.

The bay of Akka, or St. Jean d'Acre is large, but much exposed. It is frequented by French, Italian, and Austrian vessels. The British seldom go there. There is anchorage under the southernmost point, which affords a little protection. The harbors of Jaffa, (Joppa,) Tour, (Soor or Tyre,) and Sayda, (Sidon,) which existed in ancient times, are now all choked up, and offer no security to shipping. The destruction and abandonment of so many of the most distinguished ports of Syria is one of the most melancholy examples of commercial vicissitudes. Not to speak of Tyre and Sidon, whose ruins lie on an open and unprotected shore, where scarcely a fisherman's skiff can roll in safety, even such ports as Tripoli

and Latakia have ceased to be much frequented. Beirut and Scanderoon are now the two principal harbors of export and import.

Beirut (the ancient Berytus, and perhaps Berothai of Scripture) is the most flourishing port in Syria, and though in 1840 its fortifications and much of the town were destroyed, it will soon recover. One obvious evidence of prosperity was to be seen in the greatly increased value of houses and warehouse room. In four years from 1835, rental had doubled. In fact, of all the ports of Syria, it has received the most attention. It cannot be considered a healthy position, as, like all the low district between the range of Lebanon and the Mediterranean, it is much exposed to pernicious miasmatic influences; and fevers and agues are complaints to which the inhabitants are much subjected. Yet it is far more healthy than Scanderoon, and considered, indeed, the healthiest town on the coast; its population was gradually increasing, and its neighborhood is rapidly improving in cultivation and fertility. The port is much frequented, but it is, more strictly speaking, a dangerous roadstead; in the winter vessels anchor at the mouth of the river Nahr el-Kelb, (the ancient Lycus.) Still they are exposed, and frequently the northerly gales do much mischief to the shipping. This port supplies Damascus, Lebanon, and Palestine; it has 12,000 inhabitants.

There arrived at Beirut, in 1835, 13 British vessels, 4 Maltese, 9 Ionian, 124 Egyptian, 26 French, 20 Austrian, 10 Russian, 31 Sardinian, and 104 Greek. In 1836, respectively, 13, 6, 3, 134, 36, 19, 3, 34, 108, of each of these nations. In 1837, 13, 2, 1, 340, 49, 9, 2, 8, 48, of each, respectively. In all in 1835, 341 of 21,247 tons, with cargoes whose invoice value was, for the French, Sardinian, and Greek, 125,449 pounds sterling; 210 left the port, with cargoes (of the Egyptian, Sardinian, and Greek) worth £134,976. In 1836, 356 arrived, of 44,251 tons, and 342 departed; in 1837, 472 arrived and departed. The commerce of Beirut and Damascus chiefly depend on that of Bagdad, so that the free navigation of the Euphrates by steam would greatly increase it. The British cargoes were, in 1835, bales of cambric, 65; cotton twist, 967; calico, 151; long-cloths, 229; imitation Italian shawls, 130; prints, 82; muslin, 230; shirting, 45; madapolans, 327; handkerchiefs, 81; small shawls, 23; cloth, 1 bale; Indigo, 54 cases. The export cargoes were made up of inferior silk, 20 bales; cotton, 160; sheep's wool, 10; sheep skins, 15; goat skins, 2,230; hare skins, 1; hides, 862; carpets, 1 bale; madder roots, 75 barrels; gum tragacanth, 45; gum caliline, 1; galls, 279; oil, 4; tobacco, 8; sponges, 8 barrels; soap, 37 cases; fruit, 12 cases; clay, 221 barrels.

In 1836, British vessels brought 675 bales of cotton twist, 429 of madapolans, 160 of muslin, 128 of cambric, 493 of calico, 121 of handkerchiefs, 240 of imitation shaws, 372 of prints, 11 of nankeens, 7 of cochineal, 3 of cloth, 86 cases of indigo, 63 barrels of sugar, 447 bags of rice, 81 barrels of earthenware. And they carried away 2 bales of inferior silk, 224 of wool, 156 of madder roots, 5 of tobacco, 12 of saffron, 2 cases of gum, 40 of colocintida, 35 of figs, 1 sack aniseed, 12,000 killows sesame, and 66 sacks of galls.

In 1837, British vessels brought goods conjectured to be of the invoice value of 312,000 pounds sterling; viz. 32,752 bundles of cotton twist, 14,672 pieces of calico, 840 of cambric, 1,886 imitation shawls, 25,049 pieces of muslin, 40,416 handkerchiefs, 15,601 pieces of prints, 925 of

nankeen, 100 of cloth, 2,700 bundles of false pearls, 178 sacks of rice, 13 casks of salt, 14 cases of locks, 6 cases of hardware. These vessels took away 38,460 pounds of aniseed, 55 cases of colocintida, 82 sacks of galls, and 15 cases of gum.

Of silk, there was exported from Beirut, in the four years, from 1833 to 1836, inclusive, to France, 1,968 bales, valued at 3,505,134 francs, counting 4 piastres to the franc; to Egypt, 2,112 bales, value 3,686,205 francs; to England, 47 bales, 93,220 francs; to Greece, 2 bales, value 4,000 francs; to Tuscany, 596 bales, value 1,054,352 francs; to Turkey, 41 bales, value 67,350 francs; to Austria, 45 bales, value 83,272 francs; total in four years, 4,811 bales, weighing from 195 to 210 pounds each. None but a few bales of *waste*, has been sent to England since 1834. About 1,650,000 pounds of silk are produced annually.

The fluctuations and clipping of the currency are much complained of, also the abuse of consular protections to shield debtors.

Scanderoon is to become the chief port of Aleppo, and if the Euphrates navigation succeeds, the chief port of transit for Syria. It has been thought that the Orontes river (*el-Aasy*) might be used, but it is found that "the rapidity of the stream in many parts of its course, its sudden and numerous wanderings, its frequent shallows, its various bridges, and the many changes to which it is subjected in the vicissitudes of the seasons, appear to be insuperable obstacles to any plan for making the river navigable, or for using it to any considerable extent for trading purposes, and must altogether thwart any project for employing it as a means of easier communication with the Euphrates. In fact, the Orontes is scarcely available at all, even for small craft; and to reach Antioch in a steamer, though Antioch is at so short a distance from the Mediterranean, would be a work of consummate difficulty, and when accomplished, by no means worthy of the trouble and expense incurred."

Scanderoon is the only port entitled to the name; it is an extensive natural harbor, and safe for any number of vessels of any size, but it is unimproved by art; nothing has been done in the erection of wharves or quays to aid in the landing or shipping of goods. The number of English vessels that visit it is much increased of late. In 1837 they amounted to eighteen; ten or twelve French, and a few Sardinian and Austrian vessels frequent it. The place produces but little grain, but its chief produce is in firewood, and wood for building, monopolized by Ibrahim's government, who obtained yearly from 12,000 to 15,000 trees of first quality, thirty feet long by two square, which were shipped off for the use of the Alexandria arsenal; there is an inexhaustible supply in the forests of the adjoining mountains of Arsus, the ancient Mons Rhossus.

The climate, which, from the miasmata of neighboring swamps, confined to the neighborhood by close mountains, was very unhealthy, has been much improved of late, by the drying up of the surrounding marshes, effected by a canal being cut to the sea at the expense of the Egyptian government. The plain is exceedingly fertile, and the soil, being free from stones, is easily worked.

This port is the gate of all northern Syria, and eventually, perhaps, is to be the point of communication between Europe and Asia. In 1837, it imported from Britain alone, goods to the amount of 165,177 pounds sterling. The great drawback, however, to its commerce, as to that of the rest of the country, is the want of returns. Many of these might, too, be

more available, besides being vastly increased, if the communication to Aleppo, the Euphrates, Bagdad, &c., could be improved ; but at present the roads are, in unfavorable weather, in a deplorable state. The road to Aleppo goes through the town and pass of Birlan. The carriage of goods by camels may be estimated at three to four pounds for every 100 miles per ton English, each camel carrying about a quarter of a ton, at the rate of about ten miles per day. Ten bags of galls weigh on an average a ton. The importations for the immediate consumption of Scanderoon and its neighborhood, are annually about 1,500 to 1,950 bushels of wheat, and half as much barley ; 200 baskets (40,000 lbs.) of rice, 50 to 60 of which it consumes ; 50 tons of salt ; both rice and salt are from Damietta. The only staple article of export of the district is dips, dibs, or beshmet, made from grapes into a consistence resembling honey ; its mountains produce 350 to 400 cantars per annum, of which 200 to 250 are exported to Tarsus and Caramania. It is much eaten, and sells at 350 to 400 piastres for 504 pounds. Ibrahim felled some 40,000 trees here in 1835 for ship-building ; they are generally a mountain pine, very tough and close grained, with a few oaks of rather an inferior quality, but closer grained than the American, appearing fit for very good staves, excepting perhaps for oil casks. Eight to ten cantars of silk are yearly produced.

There arrived at Scanderoon, of British vessels, in 1835, 11, in 1836, 14, in 1837, 13 ; of French, in these years respectively, 9, 2, 7 ; of Austria, 1, 0, 1 ; of Sardinian, 7, 0, 2 ; of Greek, 2 in 1835 ; of Tuscan, 1 in 1837. In the three ports of Scanderoon, Latakia, and Tripoli, there arrived in 1835, 6, and 7, respectively, British, 14, 16, 13 ; French, 27, 28, 25 ; Austrian, 6, 5, 3 ; Sardinian, 17, 9, 6 ; Tuscan, 5, 9, 6 ; Greek, 12, 73, 5 ; Arab, 84, 162, 76 ; Egyptian, 0, 16, 10 ; divers, 0, 8, 0 ; Ottoman, 0, 0, 3 ; in all in 1835, 165, of 17,593 $\frac{3}{4}$ tons ; in 1836, 324, of 32,166 tons ; in 1837, 147, of 17,604 tons.

ART. II.—THE IRON TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

THERE is no substance of greater importance to the several branches of human enterprise than that of iron. From its ductility and strength it is used with great advantage in almost every department of agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and the mechanic arts, and without it they could not advance with any considerable degree of success. In agriculture, we behold it in the axe clearing the forest, and in the plough turning over the soil, through the successive steps of husbandry, down to the reaping of the harvest and the bolting of the grain ; it forms the machinery of almost every branch of manufacture, and the implements of almost all the trades ; it comprises the nails, anchors, and chains of the rigged vessel, and the engine of the steamship, the weapons of war and the instruments of peace, the harpoon and the needle, the spear and the pruning-hook, the water-pipe and the hair-spring of the watch, the sword and the harrow ; and indeed we can scarcely enter upon any department of modern mer-

cantile and mechanical effort, in which we do not find the material of iron constituting one of its most valuable staples. From the intrinsic importance of the subject therefore, as well as the prominent position which its production and manufacture sustain, as a national enterprise and the source of national wealth, we propose to trace the progress of the iron trade in our own country.

In sketching the advance of the American iron trade, it will be necessary to go back to the condition of this enterprise in the nation while it constituted the colonies of England. It can scarcely be supposed that this metal was yielded to any very great extent during our colonial dependence, for the mines which are now known to prevail here so extensively, had not been developed, nor could the labor of the people at that early period have been employed with any great advantage upon this staple. But notwithstanding those obvious facts, it appears that the crown of England regarded the probable progress of this species of our enterprise with no little fear, by the enactments that were from time to time passed in order to prevent its production and export.

Going back to the earliest production of iron in our country, it appears that this metal was first produced in the province of Virginia during the year 1715, and the sister colonies of Maryland and Pennsylvania soon emulated the energy of the ancient dominion, in directing their attention to the production of the same metal. The development of this new source of wealth was naturally regarded with considerable interest by the colonial settlers, and the satisfaction with which its production was viewed abroad, may be learned from a writer of that day, who declares "that they have iron-stone all along the continent, from the southernmost part of Carolina to the northernmost part of New England, in great plenty, and no part of the world abounds more with prodigious quantities of wood, nor with more rivers and streams;"* and he adds, moreover—"Had we a full supply of it from our plantations, we might not only ballast our ships with it, but export great quantities to those countries, and even to Africa and India." This view of the colonial trade in iron was, however, regarded in a very different light by the proprietors of British iron works, who viewed them with jealousy, as the formidable rival of their own establishments, and opposed all those measures that were calculated to favor the production of iron in the colonies of America. Two years afterward, namely, in 1719, a bill was introduced into parliament, one of the most prominent features of which was, that "none of the plantations should manufacture iron wares of any kinds out of any sows, pigs, or bars whatsoever, under certain penalties;"† and to this another clause was added by the house of peers, establishing that "no forge, going by water, or other work whatsoever, should be erected in any of the plantations, for making sows, pigs, or cast-iron into bar or rod iron." The necessary consequence of this *iron policy* must have been to drive away every forge from the infant colonies of the country, and to blow out the fire and manacle the hands of every smith, by prohibiting him from making a bolt, a spike, or a nail. It is clearly ascertained that much controversy existed during the period of 1737, upon the propriety of the exportation of iron from the British American colonies to the parent country, and on that question there sprang up two powerful and opposing parties.

* See Scrivenor's *History of the Iron Trade*, page 69.

† Ibid.

These parties were composed of the merchants on the one side, who were, as a body, favorable to the importation of iron, as well as hemp, from the colonies, upon the ground that they were two articles of very great importance to the navy and mercantile shipping of the British empire; and that class presented to parliament very urgent petitions for this object. The opponents of the petitions of the merchants were, as might have been expected, the proprietors of the English iron works, and the owners of English woodlands, the two classes the most directly interested in the production of iron in England. It was maintained by the merchants that, inasmuch as the importation of iron into England was of great amount, and introduced from Sweden and Russia, the principal part being paid for in money, and since the iron of the British colonies was equal in quality to the foreign iron, good policy should warrant the importation into England of American iron, as the price could be paid in British manufactures required in the colonies; and, moreover, from the enhanced price of cord wood, in consequence of the amount required in refining iron stone, the importation of more pig-iron from America would enable them to make more bar-iron in England. It was also maintained that the most direct mode of preventing the manufactures of the American colonies from interfering with those of England, was the granting to us encouragement to produce rough materials like that of the coarser species of iron. It was proposed that, in order to further the policy last named, an additional duty should be laid on all foreign bar-iron imported, and to repeal those which existed on the importation of iron from the American colonies. The policy of the merchants at length prevailed, and in the year 1750, an act was passed, a prominent clause of which was, "that pig-iron made in the British colonies in America, may be imported duty free, and bar-iron into the port of London; no bar-iron so imported to be carried coast-wise, or to be landed at any other port, except for the use of his majesty's dock-yards, and not to be carried beyond ten miles from London." A clause was however inserted in the same bill, prohibiting the manufacture of iron in the colonies. A long series of petitions and remonstrances soon sprung from this legislation, on the part of the merchants, as also the proprietors of the woodlands and the iron foundries; the one side claiming that the tendency of that measure would be a very great injury to the interests of the producers of this article, and to that of the kingdom, and the other advocating the probable existence of directly opposite consequences. The result of these several petitions and remonstrances, was a report to the house of commons, of a committee that was appointed to prepare a bill, maintaining that the importation of bar-iron from the British colonies in America, into the port of London, should be extended to all the other ports of Great Britain, and that so much of that act as related to this cause, should be repealed; which was done in a subsequent act of 1765, permitting the American colonies to export their iron also to Ireland. Such were the prominent features of the legislation of the British government respecting the colonial iron trade. The occurrence of the revolution, in 1775, severed our colonial dependence upon the mother country, and forever terminated the legislation of the crown over the colonial products.

The system of measures for the firm establishment of the domestic interests of the country, springing from the organization of the government, and the erection of a solid and architectural plan of national policy, at the

termination of the war of the revolution, was felt in its influence upon the iron trade, as well as the other mercantile interests of the nation, and it continued gradually to progress until the close of our last war (of 1812) with Great Britain. While that war was pending, an extraordinary impulse was given to the production of iron, as well as other branches of domestic industry, cut off as we then were from the ocean, that had before been a most fruitful field of our enterprise, and a large amount of capital which had been scattered upon other adventures, was directed to this valuable staple; workshops, mills, and machinery sprang up, and foreign artisans were encouraged to settle in various parts of the country. As early as 1809 indeed, the secretary of the treasury had, in an able report, portrayed in a fitting manner the inexhaustible resources of the nation; and during the following year, (1810,) in a report from the same source, upon the subject of manufactures, that functionary specifies the article of iron, and the manufactures of iron, as firmly established in all the states, constituting an important portion of the consumption of the United States. According to the returns of the marshals, the quantity of bar-iron produced at that time, was twenty-four thousand four hundred and seventy-one tons, which were then valued at two million six hundred and forty thousand seven hundred and seventy-eight dollars; of which quantity, ten thousand nine hundred and sixty-nine tons were yielded in the single state of Pennsylvania.* The ores of iron having been at that period discovered in most of the states of the Union, and mines being then worked in the states of New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and North Carolina.

The state of Massachusetts had at that time an extensive establishment for the manufacture of arms, New Hampshire iron works sufficient for the consumption of the state, and Vermont possessed forges, furnaces, and slitting-mills which yielded many tons of bar-iron. In Rhode Island there had been early established a slitting-mill, three anchor forges, and machines for cutting nails; while the state of New York possessed many forges, furnaces, and bloomeries; Connecticut contributed its hollow iron ware, nails, tinned plates, and iron wire, and its modicum of fire-arms; and New Jersey its bar-iron and nail-rods, hollow ware and castings. Pennsylvania also exhibited extensive manufactures of iron, slitting-mills and foundries, and its manufacture of steam engines; and Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, North Carolina, and South Carolina had already begun to lay the foundation of extensive iron manufactures.

On the third of July, 1815, a commercial treaty was entered into between Great Britain and the United States, establishing for both a reciprocal freedom of commerce for the period of four years. By this act no higher duties were to be imposed upon articles exported and imported than those demanded of other nations, and the same duties as well as bounties were affixed to those vessels in which they were transported. An amendment was however made in our own tariff during the year 1818, and subsequently in 1824, and also in 1828 there was a still more important alteration made, particularly affecting the importation of British iron.

Prior to the establishment of the tariff of 1828 however, a committee was appointed by congress to examine and to exhibit the facts connected

* See Pitkin's Statistics of the United States.

with our domestic manufactures, and particular evidence was adduced upon the subject of iron. From the testimony of the respectable individuals who were interrogated upon the condition of the iron manufacture in the state of Pennsylvania, it appears that according to their estimate, there were at that time manufactured in that state twenty-one thousand and eight hundred tons of bar-iron, and forty-seven thousand and seventy-five tons of cast metal, of which thirty-seven thousand and two hundred tons were used in making bar-iron, and fourteen thousand three hundred and sixty-five tons of castings,—one hundred tons of iron being converted into nails. It was also stated, that at that time there were three thousand tons of bar-iron manufactured in the neighborhood of Lake Champlain. It was moreover alleged from the same sources, that in the state of New York there were, within a circle of thirty miles in diameter, eighty-one forge fires in use, each forge having two fires and one hammer; that the capital invested in one hundred and ten forge fires in operation, was one million two hundred and ten thousand dollars, each fire capable of producing from twenty-five to thirty-five tons per annum, employing five thousand seven hundred and twenty hands; and that in the counties of Morris, Bergen, and Sussex, in New Jersey, there were manufactured two thousand and fifty tons. Such was the substance of the evidence elicited by the official investigation of 1828, and resulting in the augmentation of the protective duties of the country.

Two years afterward, namely, in 1830, a report was made to the House of Representatives against the expediency of altering the tariff; and on the 8th of February, of the same year, Mr. Cambreleng, the chairman of the committee on commerce and navigation, submitted to the house of representatives a very able and eloquent report, in which he advocated a substantial modification of the existing tariff law, claiming that the revenue system of the United States abounded in a tissue of absurdities, and should be amended. Mr. Cambreleng, at that time the organ of the most influential commercial emporium of the United States, followed up his report by a bill to amend the navigation laws of the country, which was twice read; but the party of the tariff arrayed themselves against the chamber of commerce, and the memorialists at length prevailed and defeated the bill.

During the next session of congress, the attention of the national legislature was called by the message of the president to the revenue system of the country, and he declares in that document, "objects of national importance alone ought to be protected; of these, the productions of our soil, our mines, and our workshops, essential to national defence, occupy the first rank. Whatever other species of domestic industry having the importance to which I have referred, may be expected after temporary protection to compete with foreign labor on equal terms, merit the same attention in a subordinate degree."* Although the two parties, which had before been violently opposed upon the question of revising the tariff, still existed, the report of the majority of the committee on manufactures opposed any modification of the existing revenue laws, upon the ground that their consequences had not been fully tested, and the minority of the committee presented a counter report upon the same subject. About the same time a petition of the iron manufacturers of Philadelphia was presented

* Message of President Jackson, December, 1830.

to the senate and house of representatives, praying—1st. That all the existing duties on pig-iron, scraps, boiler plates, and all other iron in loops, slabs, blooms, or any other state but manufactured and bar-iron, be abolished or repealed, and the importation on the same be admitted free of duty. 2d. That all bar-iron manufactured by hammering, be admitted subject to the duty of April 27, 1816, on its importation, to wit, at the rate of 45 cents per cwt. 3d. That all descriptions of iron manufactured by rolling, including bar, bolt, rod, sheet, and hoop, of every size and quality, be admitted subject to a duty not exceeding that now imposed on the importation of hardware, namely, 25 per cent. 4th. That wire of iron or steel, of all sizes and numbers, be admitted subject to the same duty as the manufactures of wire now are on their importation, namely, 25 per cent. 5th. That the duty now imposed on railroad iron, when purchased in the United States, be remitted, or a drawback of the existing duty be allowed thereon, on all sums exceeding 50 dollars. And lastly, that the existing duties on steel be abolished or repealed, and the importation of the same admitted free of duty.” Opposed to the advocates of a change of the tariff, a delegation from several states of the Union, entitled the friends of domestic industry, assembled in convention at New York, maintaining in their address to the people of the country, the right of Congress to impose duties for protection of domestic manufactures as well as for revenue. A committee consisting moreover of members from Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, were appointed to draft a report upon the production and manufacture of iron and steel in the United States, a document which contained much valuable matter, collected with great care.

The subjoined tables exhibit the result of their investigations upon the subject.

STATES.	1828.			1829.			1830.		
	<i>Furnaces.</i>	<i>Pig-iron.</i>	<i>Castings.</i>	<i>Furnaces.</i>	<i>Pig-iron.</i>	<i>Castings.</i>	<i>Furnaces.</i>	<i>Pig-iron.</i>	<i>Castings.</i>
	No.	Tons.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Tons.
Pennsylvania...	44	24,822	3,693	44	27,425	4,564	45	31,056	5,506
New Jersey....	11	1,733	6,264	11	1,941	5,998	10	1,671	5,615
Maryland	5	2,247	483	5	1,715	1,065	6	3,163	1,259
Virginia	2	400	50	2	702	72	2	538	43
Ohio.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	5,400	250
Delaware.....	1	450	350	1	450	350	1	450	350
Missouri.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	590	250
	63	29,652	10,840	63	32,233	12,049	73	42,868	13,273

“One furnace, erected in Pennsylvania in 1830, will, in 1831, make 1,100 tons of pig-iron.

In addition to the seventy-three furnaces mentioned in the preceding table, from which detailed returns had been received, the committee had information of 129 furnaces, in the states of Pennsylvania, New York, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Tennessee, New Hampshire, Virginia, and Ohio, in actual operation, but from them had then received no returns. Taking the production of the seventy-three furnaces, from which

returns have been received, as the rate for estimating the whole, and the following would be the result:

<i>Years.</i>	<i>Furnaces.</i> No.	<i>Pig-iron.</i> Tons.	<i>Castings.</i> Tons.	<i>Total.</i> Tons.
1828	192	90,868	38,036	123,404
1829	192	98,234	36,720	134,954
1830	202	118,620	36,728	155,348

But as the greater part of the furnaces, not included in the returns, are situated in districts where but few castings are made, the committee have not felt authorized to estimate the quantity of castings made at them at more than about 5 per cent of their entire production, which would give the following proportions and result:

<i>Years.</i>	<i>Furnaces.</i> No.	<i>Pig-iron.</i> Tons.	<i>Castings.</i> Tons.	<i>Total.</i> Tons.
1828	192	108,564	14,840	123,404
1829	192	118,404	16,549	134,954
1830	202	137,075	18,273	155,348

From the best information the committee have been able to collect on this subject, they estimate, that of the pig-iron made in these years, about 10,000 tons per annum have, upon an average, been converted in the air furnaces and cupolas into castings, leaving to be manufactured into bar-iron—

In 1828, of pig-iron, 98,564 tons, making of bars 70,403 tons.

1829 “ 108,405 “ 77,432 “

1830 “ 127,075 “ 90,768 “

And which quantities severally correspond with remarkable proportional accuracy with the returns from 132 forges, which accompanied the returns from the seventy-three furnaces first mentioned.

In East Jersey, in a part of Connecticut, in a large district of New York, and in Vermont, bar-iron is extensively made by the process technically denominated “blooming,” or by a single operation from the ore, without the intervention of the blast-furnace.

The returns already received justify the committee in putting down this description of bar-iron, for the year 1828, at 5,341 tons; 1829, 5,654 tons; 1830, 5,853 tons; of which 2,197 tons in East Jersey—making a total of bar-iron for 1828, of 75,744 tons; 1829, 83,086 tons; 1830, 96,621 tons; and the entire quantity of iron, in its first stage, as shown in the following table:

<i>Description of iron.</i>	1828. <i>Tons.</i>	1829. <i>Tons.</i>	1830. <i>Tons.</i>
Pig-iron	108,564	118,405	137,075
Castings from blast-furnaces .	14,840	16,549	18,273
Bloomed bar-iron, for the years respectively, reduced to pig-iron, at 28 cwt. to the ton of bars	7,477	7,916	8,194

Total iron in pigs and castings,	130,881	142,870	163,542
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Total increase of all kinds of iron in two years very nearly 25 per cent.

For the purpose of determining the value of the above iron, the committee have taken the average prices of the principal sea-ports, and those

of Pittsburgh and Cincinnati, and have estimated that two thirds of the bar-iron made in the United States is sold in the western markets. The proportion may be greater, which would increase the entire value.

In 1828 the average price of American hammered iron in the principal cities east of the Susquehannah was 105 dollars, and at Pittsburgh and Cincinnati 125 dollars; the average estimated as above would be 118 $\frac{1}{2}$. In 1829 the prices were 100 and 122—giving an average of 114 $\frac{1}{2}$; and in 1830, 90 and 100 dollars—average 96 $\frac{1}{2}$. Castings from the blast furnaces are valued at 60 dollars, although many sell higher; and from the air furnace and cupola at 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents per lb., which is certainly not above the average rate.

At these prices the aggregate value of the iron made in—

1828 would be	\$10,861,440
1829	"	.	.	.	11,528,134
1830	"	.	.	.	11,444,410

Increase in market value in two years, less than 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent; decrease in value from 1829 to 1830, nearly three fourths of one per cent."

As the manufacture of steel is intimately connected with that of iron, it may be important to state that the report on that subject, made at the same time, exhibits the number of steel furnaces then existing in the United States, to have been fourteen, and established in the following places, namely, two at Pittsburgh, one in Baltimore, in Philadelphia three, in New York three, in York county, Pennsylvania, one, in Troy one, in New Jersey two, and in Boston one, all capable of producing annually sixteen hundred tons. The committee in their report go on to say: But it should be observed, that steel, for common agricultural purposes, is not the best, although it is most used, and that American is quite equal to English steel, used for such purposes in England. American competition has excluded the British common blister-steel altogether. The price of blister-steel is less than it was before 1828, and probably as low as it ever will be—certainly as low as it ought to be, having a just consideration for the manufacturer and his customer. The only steel now imported from Great Britain is of a different and better quality than that just mentioned. It has been the laudable pride of American legislation to advance with the increasing enterprise of the people, and to encourage discoveries of those mineral treasures, towards which that enterprise might be profitably directed. The committee having shown the result of such countenance from government, in the instance of common blister-steel, may be allowed to anticipate the effects of its continuance, and that protection will be hereafter acknowledged as the parent of perfection.

Steel imported here, from all parts of the world, except England, (although the German steel is freely employed in some branches of manufactures,) amounts to so considerable a quantity, that the competition for ascendancy in our own market must rest between that nation and this. We already supply ourselves, to her exclusion, with common steel; and, to give some idea how extensively it affects our manufactories, the committee will state two or three striking facts. The iron of this country, when properly made, has been found equal in quality to Russian and Swedish iron used in England for conversion into steel, and, being so converted, is employed in making large and rough implements of manufacture and agriculture. It is used in the fabrication of ploughshares, it is worked up by shovel-makers, among whom one in Philadelphia uses

more than fifty tons a year. Scythe-makers are among the best customers of a steel furnace, and cross-cut and mill saw-makers use more than any other manufacturers. One factory of this kind, in Philadelphia, requires a ton and a half of steel per diem, for every working day of the year. These isolated instances may give some idea of the vast consumption of steel in the numerous factories of the United States, and for this purpose alone they are stated.

The English, however, continue to supply us with the superior qualities. These are—

1. Blister-steel, from iron of the Danamora mines, in Sweden.
2. Sheer-steel, of the same origin.
3. Cast-steel.

As to the first, being the best quality of blister-steel, a house in Hull monopolizes all the iron made from Danamora ore, under a contract, by which the parties in Sweden are to forfeit £10,000 sterling if they sell to anybody else, so that no other European country can furnish a good file, without resorting to England for the steel that is made of Danamora iron, this excelling all others in Europe for files, and many other instruments. The British manufacturers, aware of the advantages of their monopoly, continue to exact the same price for their steel delivered in America that they did before the duty on the Swedish iron was reduced in England, from 28.88 to 6.66 dollars per ton—thus proving that an article whose low duty approaches nearest to no duty, (almost “free trade,”) is charged to this country at a rate no less than before the reduction of duty took place in England.

It is, however, a cause for congratulation here, that iron of similar or equal quality to that which has thrown all the advantages of manufacturing the best articles of cutlery, into British hands, has been made recently, by improved processes, from the ore of Juniata, and both sides of the line between New York and Connecticut—the latter denominated the Ancrum, the Livingston, and the Salisbury ore. Steel is now made at Pittsburgh, and may be made in New York and Connecticut, bearing a fair comparison with the best hoop L (L) or Danamora steel that comes from England. No difference is observed where trials have been made, without disclosing to the judges the origin of either. Two establishments, one in New York and another in Pittsburgh, have justified this statement, and encouraged a hope that the products of our own mines, smelted by means of modern improvements in the construction of furnaces and application of the blast, and elaborated by machinery lately introduced, will rival the best quality of steel that England can furnish.

The second kind of first quality British steel is called “sheer-steel.” This is nothing more than blister-steel, drawn under a tilt-hammer into bars of the various sizes used in the fabrication of some articles of cutlery, and the finer kinds of edge tools. England has hitherto monopolized this branch also, from being in possession of the only European steel that would bear the expense of preparation, and from the perfection of her machinery. She has now the honor of transferring a portion of her experience and skill to the United States. Her workmen in steel, wanting employment or adequate recompense for labor at home, continually seek these among us; and it is believed that these may be afforded to such an extent as to yield them support commensurate with their industry, and that

ingenious men, who, under other circumstances, might have been compelled to pursuits not congenial with their education, or to be dependents upon public bounty, will become useful citizens, instead of idlers and beggars in the land."

The third kind of steel (best quality) is called "cast-steel," and this is made from the best blister-steel only. There is none made in the United States. Several attempts to make it with profit have proved unfortunate.

The causes of failure were—

1. The want of best quality blister-steel (of which only it can be made) at a reasonable price.

2. The want, or expense, of crucibles of proper quality, wherein the blister-steel is to be melted and smelted.

The first difficulty may be surmounted by the discovery that iron, well made, from the ores of Juniata, New York, and Connecticut, may be converted to the best blister-steel; and the second difficulty is believed to be at an end, since the explorations of the present year have disclosed the existence of clay analogous to that of Stourbridge, which is considered the best in the world for crucibles. Centre, Clearfield, and Lycoming counties (Pennsylvania) have yielded large specimens of clay that satisfy geologists, mineralogists, and chemists, of the identity of its properties with those of Stourbridge. Clay, in the vicinity of Baltimore, has been successfully employed in the manufacture of fire-brick, and may probably be used for the manufacture of crucibles for cast-steel, if properly prepared. The great impediment to the making of cast-steel has not arisen from any mystery in the art, but the want of strength in the crucibles. Black lead, and a variety of clays, have been tried, but the weakness of these materials have hitherto caused a loss to the manufacturer, because the crucibles made of them would not bear moving when the melted metal was in them (generally about 28 lbs.) The Stourbridge was the only kind of clay that possessed the requisite qualities of preserving its shape and soundness when exposed to the greatest heat, and its strength and tenacity when moved for the purpose of discharging the melted metal. Capital, enterprise and perseverance will be engaged to bring this desirable material, so indispensable to the finer arts of cutlery and machinery into market, if protection be continued to the efforts which our citizens are willing to make.

If these views are correct, we have steel for agricultural purposes in the greatest abundance; we have steel (sheer-steel) for nicer purposes, and we may have cast-steel for the most refined articles of manufacture among ourselves. But this is not all; we may export our steel to Russia, Prussia, and France, in competition with England herself; and thus justify the further importation of foreign commodities which we can have the means of paying for. The subject of steel becomes more interesting as our investigation of it advances; but it is believed that the facts and inferences now set forth, will suffice to continue the protection already granted, and to procure time for more extensive practical development, which, if realized, will add to the means of domestic employment and beneficial intercourse with foreign nations.

It is estimated that the average annual quantity of hammered iron that was imported into the United States, from the year 1821 to 1830, was about twenty-six thousand two hundred tons, besides five thousand six hundred tons of rolled iron—in all thirty-one thousand eight hundred tons,

which were valued at one million seven hundred and sixty-two thousand dollars. The total amount of hammered and rolled iron consumed in the United States during the latter year, having been estimated at about one hundred and forty-four thousand six hundred and sixty-six tons, the greater part being our own domestic manufacture.

It was moreover estimated that the annual value of the foreign manufactures of iron consumed in our own country, from 1821 to 1830, was, on an average, about four millions of dollars; and the total value of foreign iron and its manufactures, about five million seven hundred and sixty-two thousand dollars—we receiving about one half of the hardware and cutlery exported from Great Britain. The total amount of iron produced in our own county, in 1830, and the connection of this species of industry with agriculture, as well as the value of the several articles manufactured from iron and steel, imported during the same year, exhibiting the proportion of our production of iron to the imports from abroad, will appear from the following tables, gathered from the report to which allusion has been made.

GENERAL RECAPITULATION.

	<i>By the report.</i>	<i>Supplementary Returns.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
Bar-iron made in the United States, tons...	96,621	16,245	112,866
Pig-iron, the whole quantity made being computed as such.....	163,543	27,994	191,536
Value..... dollars			13,329,760
Men employed..... number	24,979		29,254
Persons subsisted..... —	124,895		146,273
Annual wages..... dollars	7,493,700		8,776,420
Paid for food furnished by farmers —	3,415,850		4,000,490

The following statement may be useful in making comparisons, and is therefore added:

The importation of manufactures of iron and steel in 1830, were:

Side-arms and fire-arms, other than muskets and rifles, Drs.	179,153
Drawing knives, axes, adzes, and socket chisels	29,207
Bridle bits of every description	62,271
Steelyards, scale beams, and vices	30,899
Cutting knives, sickles, scythes, reaping hooks, spades and shovels	95,004
Screws, weighing 24 lbs. or upwards	17
Wood screws	66,817
Other articles not specified	2,908,978
Muskets No. 8,341	25,142
Rifles 8	85
Iron and steel wire lbs. 592,733	59,485
Tacks, brads, and sprigs	2,799
Nails 613,704	40,906
Spikes 37,873	1,391
Cables and chains, and parts thereof 540,628	25,885
Mill cranks and mill iron, wrought 2,781	200
Mill saws 4,395	12,252
Anchors 22,672	1,121

Anvils	lbs. 677,246	Drs. 31,249
Hammers and sledges	75,616	3,096
Castings	1,157,256	38,686
Braziers' rods	218,428	5,945
Nails and spike rods	32,848	784
Sheets and hoop	2,326,796	59,822
Slit or rolled for band, scroll or case- ment rods	2,845	81
In pigs	cwt. 22,499	25,644
Bar and bolt, rolled	138,981	226,336
Hammered	lbs. 68,753,943	1,730,375
Steel	owt. 24,472	291,957

Nearly all the iron, with its manufactures imported, was received from England, except the hammered bar and bolt iron, of which 21,912,702 lbs. were from Russia, 45,206,082 lbs. from Norway and Sweden, 984,399 lbs. from England, leaving less than a million of pounds for all other places.

The tariff regulating the import of iron remained in the same condition until 1832, when the act was passed on the 14th of July of that year, providing a more fixed policy upon the subject, an act which brings us down to the present period, and we now design to exhibit in a compendious form the present condition of the iron production and trade in the United States.

The recent extraordinary extension of agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and the mechanic arts throughout the country, all demanding large quantities of iron in their various forms, the multiplication of railroads, requiring iron for their tracks, as well as that of steamboats, and manufacturing establishments of various sorts, working only by iron muscles, the increased demand for this staple both for carriages of different kinds and houses, agriculture and the trades, have all tended to augment vastly the production and consumption of iron. Of the amount of this production we are furnished as accurate information as could probably be obtained by the last census for 1840, taken by act of congress. By this document it appears that there were during that year, in the United States, eight hundred and four furnaces, producing two hundred and eighty-six thousand nine hundred and three tons of cast-iron, one quarter of which was made into hollow ware, stove plates, plough castings, machinery, and such forms, which, when so made, was worth eighty dollars per ton; the value of the whole being

\$5,738,080 00

The remaining 215,177 tons of pig-iron is converted into wrought iron, and is merged in the 197,233 tons mentioned below.

According to the same authority, there are 795 bloomeries, forges, and rolling mills, which produce 197,233 tons of bar, rod, hoop, sheet, and other wrought iron, which is worth in market \$85 per ton,

16,764,805 00

According to the report of the secretary of the treasury for 1840, there were 5,515 tons of pig-iron imported in that year which was converted into forms at an average expense of \$50 per ton,

275,750 00

The whole value of iron made in the U. States, in 1840, **\$22,778,635 00**

The labor bestowed on the manufacture of a ton of pig-iron varies in different locations. It depends on the convenience of contiguity to each other of the various materials required. It will average, including mining, coaling, hauling, transportation, and all other charges, \$20 per ton, which on 71,726 tons, as above mentioned, which are used for casting forms,	
	\$1,434,520 00
Labor bestowed in converting 71,726 tons of pig-iron made in the United States, as per foregoing statement, into cast forms, such as hollow ware, machinery, stove plates, plough castings, and other articles of use made of cast-iron, including labor in mining, and procuring fuel and all other things necessary, will average at least \$30 per ton,	
	2,151,780 00
Labor bestowed in converting 5,515 tons of pig-iron imported in the United States, calculated as in the last foregoing article, at \$30 per ton,	
	165,450 00
Labor bestowed in making wrought iron, in procuring the materials and consolidating them, varies even more than in pig-iron, because the materials are more numerous and are liable to be further asunder, and the description of iron is more diverse. If, however, the mineral coal used is the product of the United States, all the labor, including smelting, mining, coaling, hauling, transportation, and all other incidental and necessary charges for labor, will average at least \$60 per ton, which, on 197,233 tons, as set forth in the census, amount to	
	11,833,980 00
Whole expense of labor bestowed annually in making iron in the United States	
	<u>\$15,585,730 00</u>

According to the census, the number of men employed in producing the above iron, including miners of iron, is 30,497. To this number may be added miners of coal and limestone, wood choppers, and charcoal colliers, carriers and carters, builders and millwrights, and other incidental workmen, which will probably increase it to 42,701; and, at this number, each workman will receive one dollar per day, which is believed not far from the truth. It will be remembered that all the work in manufacturing iron, and incidental thereto, is heavy, and requires the strength and physical power of men; consequently women and children are excluded from this employment, and most of the men have large families. It may be assumed, without extravagance, that, as an average, each man has a woman and three children depending upon him for support. It is true that some have no families, but others have a dozen children, enough to verify the above supposition. Allowing this supposition, the whole number of persons sustained by the labor on and incidental to the manufacture of iron, including men, women,

and children, is 213,505. Allowing each of these persons to consume each day 12½ cents worth of agricultural products, and the whole amount consumed in 365 days, is	\$9,741,166 00
According to the census, the capital employed in manufacturing the above iron is a little less than the amount of the product, which is what might be inferred by every man of practical experience, to wit	20,432,131 00
It is believed, from facts and data ascertained and admitted, that there are in the United States about 450 blast furnaces, and that the average yield of each is 772 tons per annum, (this is the ascertained average of 73 furnaces,) making an aggregate of 347,400 tons, worth in market \$30 per ton	10,422,000 00
It is believed that one fourth of this quantity (to wit, 86,850 tons) is converted into forms, such as hollow ware, machinery, plough castings, stove plates, and other articles of use made of cast-iron, and, when so converted, is worth, on an average, in addition to the worth of the pig-iron, \$50 per ton	4,342,500 00
In addition to the 86,850 tons above mentioned, there was imported into the United States, according to the report of the secretary of the treasury, for 1840, 5,515 tons of pig-iron, which was also converted into forms, and was worth, when so converted, \$50 per ton more than pig-iron	275,750 00
There are 795 bloomeries, forges, and rolling mills, in the United States.	
The remaining three fourths of the 347,400 tons of pig-iron made in the United States, as shown above, that is not remelted and cast into forms, to wit, 260,550 tons,) is converted (allowing 20 per cent for waste) into 208,440 tons of bar, rod, hoop, sheet, and other wrought iron, by puddling and refining, which is worth in market \$85 per ton	
From which deduct for 260,550 tons pig-iron, reckoned in first item above at \$30 per ton	7,816,500
	<hr/> 9,900,900 00
To the wrought iron mentioned in the foregoing article may be added 11,774 tons of bloomed iron, worth in market \$70 per ton	824,180 00
	<hr/>
Whole value of wrought and cast-iron in market, made in the United States in 1840	<u><u>\$25,765,330 00</u></u>
The labor bestowed on the manufacture of a ton of pig-iron varies in different locations. It depends on the convenience and contiguity to each other of the various materials required. It will average, including mining, coaling, hauling, transportation to market, and all other charges, \$20 per ton, which, on 347,400 tons,	

assumed as the manufacture of the United States, is	\$6,948,000 00
Labor bestowed in converting 86,850 tons of pig-iron, made in the United States, as shown in foregoing statement, into cast forms, such as hollow ware, machinery, stove plates, plough castings, and other articles of use made of cast-iron, including labor in mining and procuring fuel, and all other things necessary, will average at least \$30 per ton	2,605,500 00
Labor bestowed in converting 5,515 tons of pig-iron, imported into the United States, calculated, as in the last foregoing article, at \$30 per ton	165,450 00
Labor bestowed in converting pig into wrought iron, in procuring the materials and consolidating them, varies even more than in making pig-iron, because the materials are liable to be further asunder, and the descriptions of iron are more diverse. If, however, the mineral coal used is the product of the United States, all the labor, including mining and procuring fuel, hauling, transportation, and all other incidental and necessary charges for labor, will average at least \$40 per ton, which, on 208,440 tons, as set forth above, amounts to	8,337,600 00
Labor bestowed in blooming 11,774 tons of wrought iron, including coaling, hauling, transporting to market, and all the incidental and necessary charges, as set forth in the foregoing article, will average \$60 per ton	706,440 00
Whole amount paid for labor, annually, for the manufacture of iron in the United States	<u>\$18,762,990 00</u>

It is believed that the number of men employed in manufacturing the above iron, including miners of iron, of coal, and of limestone, wood-choppers and charcoal colliers, carriers and carters, builders and millwrights, and other incidental workmen, is 51,405 ; this number will each receive \$365 per year. It will be remembered that all the work in manufacturing iron, and incidental thereto, is heavy, and requires the strength and physical power of men ; consequently, women and children are excluded from this employment, and most of the men have large families. It may be assumed, without extravagance, that, as an average, each man has a woman and three children depending on him for support. It is true that some have no families ; but others have a dozen children—enough to verify the above assumption. Allowing this supposition, the whole number of persons sustained by the labor on, and incidental to, the manufacture of iron, including men, women, and children, is 257,025. Allowing each of these persons to consume, each day, the worth of 12½ cents of agricultural products, and the whole

amount consumed in 365 days is \$11,726,766 00

This falls a little short of the facts actually ascertained at several establishments, owing principally to grain and forage fed to horses and cattle employed in the business.

It is ascertained that the capital employed in the manufacture of iron at several establishments is a little less than the amount of the annual product of those establishments; and it is believed that this rule will hold true throughout the country, if we exclude the value of the large quantities of woodland held in connection of many of the furnaces and bloomeries. The capital employed will therefore amount, according to this rule, to about

\$22,500,000 00

The prices of iron, and its manufacture, for 1841 and 1842, are a subject of considerable interest to those who are engaged in the iron trade, and we have an authentic statement upon this subject from Mr. Henry Brevoort, who prepared it for a public purpose.

The report in which it is found has appended a large mass of very valuable information at the present time, regarding the various manufactures of the country, collected from the last census, from judicious calculations based upon ascertained facts, and from experienced men, all having an important bearing upon the subject of the tariff. Notwithstanding the great amount of loose and idle thought which has been long afloat upon the matter, it would seem that no sound and judicious legislation can be established, but upon a thorough understanding of the character of the different sorts of our productive industry, their relations to each other, and their value, as they appear to be affected by the importations of the same species of articles from abroad, and the direct consequences flowing from any given policy respecting them, upon the labor and prosperity of the country. The imagination of poetry may paint the most beautiful results as springing from free trade or a protective tariff, but all considerate and reflecting men will choose to look at a subject of legislation like this in the clear light of sober fact and common sense. The vision of the enthusiast which sees upon the evening clouds, tinged by the setting sun, the gorgeous outline of heaven-lit palaces, and the drapery of another world lighted up with radiant and golden hues, soon finds himself gazing upon a dim, dark waste. There is doubtless a bright and splendid prospect spread out for the labor of the country by the fixed and permanent establishment of our tariff policy, and there can be no doubt that the report will contribute to that end. It is a subject, however, which would seem to require investigation and reasoning from details, rather than in the abstract, and it now appears to be passing through a judicious discussion that is calculated to settle it upon a solid foundation. It would, after all, seem not so important to the labor of the country that any precise measure of duty should be affixed to the iron interest, like the other prominent subjects of protection, as that the policy respecting it should be so arranged that our own industry in its production and manufacture should seek out and flow in a uniform channel. But we return to the subject of the prices of iron.

MR. HENRY BREVOORT'S STATEMENT.

Q.—At what prices were sales made in large quantities in Jan. and July of 1840 and 1841 respectively, and in Jan. of 1842?					
Articles.	Jan'y, 1840.	July, 1840.	Jan'y, 1841.	July, 1841.	Jan'y, 1842.
Iron Anvils,.....per pound	7 a 12 cts.	7 a 12 cts.	7 a 12 cts.	6 a 11 cts.	6 a 11 cts.
Bars, common English, rolled,.....per ton	\$75 a \$77½	\$65 a \$67½	\$70 a \$72½	\$62½ a \$65	\$50 a \$55
.....per ton	\$90 a \$97½	\$87½ a \$90	\$85 a \$90	\$80 a \$82½	\$75 a \$77½
.....per ton	\$90	\$87½	\$85	\$80	\$77½
.....per ton	\$90 a \$92½	\$80 a \$82½	\$85 a \$87½	\$80 a \$82½	\$80 a \$82½
.....per ton	About 15 dols.	per ton more	than Sweden	iron.	
.....per ton	\$80	\$70	\$65	\$60	\$60
.....per ton	\$55 a \$65	\$50 or \$60	\$47½ a \$57½	\$45 a \$55	\$45 a \$55
.....per pound	5½ a 7 cts.	5 a 6½ cts.	5 a 6½ cts.	4½ a 5½ cts.	4½ a 5½ cts.
or rivets,.....per pound	\$116 a \$167	\$107 a \$153	\$91 a \$135	\$91 a \$135	\$91 a \$135
.....per ton	\$20 a 25	\$20 a \$25	\$20 a \$25	\$18 a \$22	\$18 a \$22
.....per pound	8 a 12 cts.	7 a 12 cts.	7 a 12 cts.	7 a 11 cts.	6 a 11 cts.
Nails, wrought,.....per pound	11 a 12 cts.	11 a 12 cts.	11 a 12 cts.	11 a 12 cts.	10 a 11 cts.
Nails, cut,.....per pound	5 a 5½ cts.	5 a 5½ cts.	5 a 5½ cts.	5 a 5½ cts.	5 a 5½ cts.
Nail Rods, slit,.....per ton	\$105 a \$125	\$100 a \$122½	\$100 a \$122½	\$95 a \$122½	\$90 a \$122½
Spike Rods, rolled, ½ and ¾ inch,.....per ton	\$107 a \$139	\$98 a \$128	\$87 a \$113	\$87 a \$113	\$87 a \$113
Pigs, according to the relative proportion of each quality in market, per ton,	\$33 a 37½	\$31 a \$35	\$30 a \$35	\$26 a \$37½	\$27 a \$35
Round or Braziers' Rods, of 3-16 to 8-16, inclusive,.....per ton	\$114 a \$148	\$106 a \$136	\$94 a \$130	\$94 a \$120	\$94 a \$120
Sad or Flat,.....per pound	4½ a 5½ cts.	4½ a 5½ cts.	4 a 5 cts.	4 a 5 cts.	4 a 5 cts.
Sheets, average thickness,.....per pound	5½ cts.	5½ cts.	5½ cts.	5½ cts.	5 cts.
Screws, weighing 25 pounds and upwards,.....per pound	18 a 25 cts.	17 a 25 cts.	15 a 20 cts.	15 a 20 cts.	14 a 20 cts.
Screws, not exceeding 25 pounds, not called wood screws,.....per pound	18 a 30 cts.	18 a 30 cts.	18 a 30 cts.	18 a 30 cts.	18 a 30 cts.
Scythes,.....per dozen	\$8 a \$18	\$8 a \$18	\$7 a \$18	\$7 a \$18	\$7 a \$18
Shovels,.....per dozen	\$8 a \$12	\$8 a \$12	\$7 a \$12	\$6 a \$11	\$6 a \$11
Slit, for scroll, &c.,.....per ton	\$100 a \$125	\$94 a \$120	\$83 a \$110	\$83 a \$110	\$83 a \$116
Rolled, for band or scroll, from ½ X ½ to 4 X ½,.....per ton	\$100 a \$144	\$94 a \$133	\$83 a \$116	\$83 a \$116	\$83 a \$116
Spikes,.....per pound	7½ a 8½ cts.	7 a 8½ cts.	6 a 7½ cts.	6 a 7 cts.	6 a 7 cts.
Tacks, 2½ to 16 oz. to the M.,.....	6 a 9 cts.	6 a 9 cts.	6 a 9 cts.	6 a 9 cts.	6 a 9 cts.
Do. exceeding 16 oz. to the M.,.....	10 a 20 cts.	10 a 20 cts.	10 a 20 cts.	10 a 20 cts.	10 a 20 cts.
Brads, from ½ to 2 inch, per M.,.....	6 a 20 cts.	6 a 20 cts.	6 a 20 cts.	6 a 20 cts.	6 a 20 cts.
Wire, not exceeding No. 14,.....per pound	6½ a 9 cts.	6½ a 9 cts.	6½ a 9 cts.	6½ a 9 cts.	6½ a 9 cts.
Do. exceeding No. 14,.....per pound	10½ a 26½ cts.	10½ a 26 cts.	10½ a 26 cts.	10½ a 26 cts.	10 a 25½ cts.

As a subject necessarily springing from the production of iron, we would allude to the already very great amount of machinery, hardware of different kinds, and fire-arms, manufactured in our own country, iron being the staple of which they are mainly composed. By the census of 1840, it appears that there were thirteen thousand and one men employed in machinery, the total value of which is ten million nine hundred and eighty thousand five hundred and eighty-one ; five thousand four hundred and ninety-two men engaged in the manufacture of cutlery, which is produced to the value of six millions four hundred and fifty-one thousand nine hundred and sixty-seven dollars ; and that there are one thousand seven hundred and forty-four men employed in the making of small-arms, which are produced to the number of eighty-eight thousand and seventy-three. There is no doubt that a considerable proportion of the iron, and especially steel, of which these several articles are composed, are introduced from abroad ; but it is also true that the amount produced with us, and used for those purposes, has been gradually increasing with the growth of the country.

The period having arrived in which it has been found necessary to remodel the tariff law, it was made an important object with the committee on manufactures, the chairman of which was Mr. Saltonstall, to collect all the most important facts bearing upon this interest from intelligent and practical iron manufacturers, and from their investigation a large body of evidence was brought together upon that topic. From the amount of iron, raw and manufactured, imported into this country, it seemed important to know what would be the consequence upon the iron interest if the minimum duty of 20 per cent ad valorem, should go into effect on the first of June, 1842 ; and whether, under such circumstances, the iron manufacture of this country could be sustained ? If it could not, and the manufacture of iron is abandoned, whether the country would be benefited ? If the manufacture of iron were abandoned, whether the people of the country would obtain their supplies of iron as cheap as in 1839 ? Lastly, the reason why iron could not be manufactured as cheap with us as in England, or the other nations of Europe ? These were the four prominent points involved in the investigation, and the answers of the iron manufacturers were clear and direct.

It was replied by a respectable iron manufacturer of the state of Maryland, that if the compromise act should go into effect, there would not be in operation, in the year 1843, a blast furnace using charcoal in Vermont, Connecticut, Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, Pennsylvania, or Virginia, east of the mountains. To the second question it was answered, that as it required a long period to organize an iron establishment, and to fill it with competent workmen, and longer still to put it into successful operation, suppose we were involved in a war with any of the nations of Europe, we should obtain our supplies from England, the nation with which we were most likely to be involved in war at any time ; and under such circumstances we should be thrown into a state of dependence upon another nation for that staple of which is wrought almost every offensive and defensive weapon, with but few exceptions, unless we should go back to the old wooden spade or plough. It was replied to the third question, that if the compromise act should go into operation on the first of June, the American markets would be glutted with the present surplus stocks of England. Their forges, one

fourth of which now lie idle, would be again put in operation, and the prices would be kept low until all our works should be abandoned, when they would advance them at pleasure. If we should arrive at a point in which we could make iron at a moderate profit, the iron workers of England would send their own iron across the water at so cheap a rate as to control all our supplies ; while on the other hand, if an adequate protection was furnished to the iron trade of the United States for ten years more, the consumption of the article would cost the country millions of dollars less every year.

From the evidence adduced upon this subject at the period to which we have referred, it would seem that the causes of our inability to manufacture iron as cheaply as in England, as well as other nations of Europe, are various. The first is the value of money. While in England, and upon the continent of Europe, money commands an interest of from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 per cent, it is difficult to be obtained here even at 7, frequently commanding a much higher rate. Besides, the iron works of Europe, having been long established, and grown to that perfection in manufacture and economy in arrangement gained only by experience, are able to produce with the same measure of expense a greater amount of the staple. But the more important fact which causes the difference in the price of the manufacture of foreign and domestic iron, is the difference in the price of labor. It is true, indeed, that in the abundance and variety of our ores we exceed any portion of Great Britain or the continent, but in the greater price of our labor we endure a proportionate disadvantage, so far as the expense of production is concerned. By the report of the board of ordnance officers, sent to Europe in 1840, by Mr. Poinsett, the late secretary of war, it appears that the common laborers employed about the Aker furnace, in Sweden, receive only from twenty to thirty cents per day, and mechanics employed in boring and finishing cannon or skilful machinists from thirty to forty-two cents, and a team of two horses, wagon and driver, is obtained at forty-two cents per day. In France, the wages paid to workmen at the Ruelle Cannon Foundry vary from one to three francs ; more than half receiving less than two francs, while the total amount of the wages paid to all the forty workmen is only seventy-five francs, averaging for each thirty-seven and a half cents. It has been alleged from an authentic source, that the value of wages in our own country exceeds that of England by fifty per cent, while it is alleged that it is from two and a half to three times greater with us than in Scotland ; which, together with the other facts to which we have alluded, account for the difference in the value of the production of iron in our own country and Europe.

The market of New York is now largely supplied with Russia, Swedish, and English bar-iron, but it appears that the latter comes into the most direct competition with us ; it being inferior in quality is manufactured in large quantities and is sold cheap. The best quality is Banks' English refined iron, which is equal to ours, and now competes with our own in market at a duty of \$30 per ton, while the best foreign iron is that of Russia and the Swedish, competing but little with ours, it being principally used for the making of steel springs, and the tools of the trades, besides other articles of a similar character. While the value of our own domestic iron is so much greater than that of the low-priced English, so also is the cost of its production. The Swedish and Russian iron is, we learn,

hammered, while the low-priced English to which we have referred, is either rolled, or puddled and rolled. It is to be hoped that the legislation of the present congress will establish the policy that is to regulate this important interest upon a fixed and permanent basis.

We have endeavored in this paper, compiled from various sources, to group the most prominent points connected with the iron trade of the United States, and to trace the policy that has borne upon it from our earliest colonial existence to the present time. In order rightly to appreciate its importance as a mercantile interest, we need only to look abroad at the part which it bears, not only in the agriculture, but the commerce, the manufactures, and the mechanic arts of the nation. The hills and valleys, the plains and mountains of our wide-spread territory abound in inexhaustible resources of coal and iron, which geological investigations are continually bringing to light. From Cincinnati and Pittsburgh, that through their forges and other establishments for the manufacture of iron send up their clouds of smoke like the rock-bound cavern of antiquity to the shores of the Atlantic, there are scattered already a vast number of iron works, that are pouring forth their products, from the large and ponderous machinery of steam-engines and manufactures down to the most minute implements of domestic use and the trades ; and the amount is constantly increasing with the expanding resources and enterprise of the country. With the increase of our commerce must be the augmented demand for the products of our iron works. The staple is moreover gradually extending itself into a much wider circle of use, according to the improvements of the age, and every year we find it moulded into more numerous and beautiful forms. What a very large proportion do the various products of iron bear to the actual trade of our large commercial towns ? This question is answered in our numerous warehouses, not only for the sale of the raw material, but in the hardware stores scattered through the large cities and the interior. It now supplies not only the enclosures of our principal public grounds and parks, but the permanent fixtures and railings of our most costly edifices, and indeed we can scarcely pass the streets without meeting some of its numerous manufactures upon every side. It forms the material of the sharpest needle and the strongest bar, the mechanism of the musical snuff-box, the delicate and glittering wheels and spindles that play within the most exquisite watch, and the crashing machinery of the steamship, that drives the hugest fabric through the ocean storm. It provides for war its most formidable weapons, for peace its most valuable implements, and may be considered a fruitful source of domestic comfort and political strength, the grand Archimedian lever of nations. With the augmenting enterprise of the people we doubt not that its production and manufacture are destined to be an increasing source of wealth, and as such, that this grand staple will receive the attention which its importance clearly demands.

ART. III.—COMMERCIAL VOYAGES AND DISCOVERIES.

CHAPTER III.

VOYAGE OF VASCO DE GAMA.

THE successful issue of the voyage of Columbus, in 1492, filled the minds of the Portuguese with both admiration and alarm, and determined them to renewed attempts to reach India round the southern point of Africa. This point had been reached in 1486 by Bartholomew Diaz, who had been despatched with three ships, with orders to look out for the kingdom of the famous Prester John. Diaz gave the name of *Tormentosa*, or stormy, to the promontory; but upon his return, the king, in indication of the hope it held out of the long-sought passage, changed it to *Cabo de buena esperanza*, or Cape of Good Hope. The idea of doubling this cape met the same obstacles, and encountered the same prejudices that had attended each step of discovery around the other prominent African capes. It was argued that the storms encountered by Diaz were perpetual, and placed as a barrier to further advance, and that it was an impious tempting of Providence to attempt to proceed any further. King Emanuel had, however, fortunately inherited his predecessor's desire to find out a new route to the riches of the east, and he "determined to proceed so long as the men of penetration and integrity were on his side." He knew that nothing more was necessary to attain success than to employ persons of resolution and judgment to execute his designs; and with this view he selected Vasco de Gama, "a gentleman of quality, ability, and courage," to command the expedition which he had resolved upon.

This voyage of De Gama is to be found in a number of works, as De Barros, Ramusio Maffi, Sousa, and Castanneda. From this last, as condensed by the editor of Astley's Collection, we abridge the following account. Castanneda is considered good authority, and he had ample opportunities of acquiring information, as he went to India, according to Faria y Sousa, "only to examine into the truth of what he wrote; and though neither his style or his geography are very commendable, he hath many curious remarks."

Furnished with letters for the princes of the east, and among the rest to Prester John, and the king of Kalecut, De Gama sailed from Belem, a few miles from Lisbon, on Saturday, the eighth of July, 1497, with three small ships and one hundred and sixty men. The names of the ships were the St. Gabriel, the St. Raphael, and Berrio; the captains, Paul de Gama, brother to Vasco, and Nicolas Nunnez. Arrived in sight of the Canaries, a violent storm separated the admiral from the rest of his squadron, and he did not effect a junction with them until eight days after, at Cape Verde, from whence they went the day after to St. Jago, where they repaired the damages they had suffered from the storm, and took in a supply of water. On the third of August they proceeded on their way, and encountered much tempestuous weather, until the fourth of November, when land was descried, and passing along it on the seventh day they came to a great bay, to which, according to custom, they gave the name of *Angra de Santa Elena*, it being that saint's day on which it was first seen.

The people of this island* were blacks, small of stature, and ill-favored. When they spoke, it seemed as if they sighed. They were clothed in the skins of wild beasts, and lived upon roots, sea-wolves, (seals,) and whales, of which there were great numbers, although it is not explained how they were caught.

Next day the admiral, with his captains, landed, in hopes of finding how far it was to the Cape of Good Hope. The chief pilot, Pedro de Alanquez, who had accompanied Diaz in his voyage, conjectured that it could not be more than thirty leagues at most. The admiral, in his walks, took a man gathering honey at the foot of a bush, and carried him on board, thinking that he had got an interpreter, but none of the ship's crew understood him. Next day they set him on shore well apparelled, which so pleased his countrymen, that the day following fifteen of them came down towards the ships, at sight of whom the admiral went again on shore, carrying with him spice, gold, and pearl, but the natives were evidently ignorant of their value, and evinced much more pleasure at presents of bells and little tin rings. But though ignorant, they were not so very innocent, for they laid an ambush for the Portuguese, and furiously attacked them with darts and spears. The admiral, who had brought no arms with him, was compelled to hasten with his men to the boats. Four Portuguese were wounded, and the admiral received an injury in his leg.

The sixteenth of November, in the forenoon, they departed with a southwest wind, and the eighteenth, in the evening, came in sight of the Cape of Good Hope, which bearing southeast and the wind being contrary, they stood out to sea, but at night again tacked towards shore, and thus sailed until the twentieth, when they doubled the cape, shouting and sounding their trumpets, and making other demonstrations of their joy at the happy event.

On the twenty-fourth they came to San Blas, which is sixty leagues beyond the cape. On a rock in this harbor they saw at one time as many as three thousand sea-wolves. Here the provisions were all taken out of a bark which had accompanied them as a store-ship, and the vessel destroyed.

A few days after their arrival there appeared about ninety of the inhabitants, some on the sands and others on the mountains, whereupon the admiral landed with his men well armed, and made out to strike up a trade in a small way, exchanging brass bells and red night-caps for ivory bracelets. A few days after there came down several hundred negroes, with twelve oxen, which were observed to abound and to be used as beasts of burden, and four sheep. As the Portuguese came on shore the natives commenced playing upon flutes and singing, and their visitors returned the compliment by sounding the trumpets and joining in the dance, and the day passed in feasting and mirth. Not long after more negroes came down with cattle. The Portuguese, having purchased an ox, perceived some young negroes behind the bushes with the weapons of the old ones, and the

* The mistake has been made of supposing that this place was the island of St. Helena. But the island well known by that name was not discovered until 1502, and it is twelve hundred miles from the African coast, so that it would be impossible to reach the Cape of Good Hope, as it is stated that De Gama did. The place is the bay of St. Helena, about thirty miles north of Saldahena bay.

admiral, suspecting some treachery, ordered his men to retire to some more secure place. The negroes made demonstrations of attack, but De Gama, unlike many commanders, was as humane as he was prudent and courageous, and unwilling to do them any harm, he withdrew in his boats without offering any violence, merely directing two pieces of ordnance to be fired over their heads, whereat they were not a little surprised, and fled, leaving their weapons behind.

They departed on the eighth of December, and again encountered a violent storm. The sixteenth they saw some small rocks, about sixty leagues beyond the harbor of San Blas. The country here was very pleasant, and it was observed that the further they advanced the larger and more luxuriant became the trees. They had now fairly rounded the southern extremity of Africa, and began to steer a more northerly course. On Christmas day, 1498, they saw land, to which, on account of the day, they gave the name of *Tierra de Natal*. After this they came to a river, which, as it was the day of Epiphany, they named *de los Reyes*. Here De Gama left two men, part of a company of condemned criminals, which he took with him for the purpose, with directions to inform themselves of every thing they possibly could in relation to the country. Here he succeeded in trading for ivory and provisions.

The eleventh of January, while coasting along in boats, they saw a large company of very tall men and women, and landing, they were well received. The admiral made the negro prince a present of a red jacket, stockings, and cap, which highly pleased his sable majesty, and excited the enthusiastic admiration of his subjects. He invited Martin Alonzo, who spoke several negro languages, to accompany him into the country, where he treated him with great civility.

Departing on the fifteenth from this "land of good people," as De Gama called it, they sailed along a low coast, covered with tall trees, as far as *Cabo Corientes*, or the Cape of Currents. Rounding this cape they proceeded on fifty leagues, passing without seeing it the famous town of Sofala, (supposed by some to be the Ophir of Solomon,) and on the twenty-fourth they came to the mouth of a large river. They had now fairly entered the Mozambique channel, which separates the Island of Madagascar from the continent, and began to encounter the signs of their approach to the regions in the track of Arabic commerce. The people understood something of the Arabic language, were more civilized in their dress, and less astonished at the sight of the strangers.

Leaving the river of "good signs," they came on the fourth of March to four small islands, two near the shore. From one of these several small boats came off, and, as soon as the ships had come to an anchor, the crews came on board. The people in them were tall, somewhat black, clothed with colored calicoes, and wearing linen turbans, wrought with silk and gold. They were armed with swords and daggers, and spoke the Arabic. Being asked what town that was, they replied that the island was called Mozambique; that the town was full of merchants, who traded with the Moors of India for silks, spices, and precious stones. They offered to conduct the ships into the harbor, and Coello having the smallest ship was sent to sound the bar, which, after touching, he passed and anchored his ship within a quarter of a mile from the town. The Portuguese found the harbor good, and the provisions plenty. The inhabitants traded to Sofala, the Red Sea and India, in ships without decks, and built

without nails, the timbers being sewed together with ropes made of the cocoanut husks, and their sails made of palm leaves. They had also the knowledge of charts and the compass. Here De Gama learned that he was on the right route to the renowned city of Kalecut in India, which was represented to be distant about nine hundred leagues. For some time an appearance of friendship was kept up, but the sheikh and his subjects finding out that the Portuguese, whom they at first mistook for Moors, were Christians, laid several plans for their capture. But the prudence of De Gama was more than a match for the treachery of the Moors. At last they were compelled to enter the harbor and procure water by force—the natives being kept at a distance by fear of the ordnance. The twenty-fourth of march, a Moor insulting the fleet from the shore, De Gama, to revenge that and other injuries, manned his boats, and after driving a body of Moors from the shore, who came to oppose his landing, and taking a few, and among the rest a pilot who understood the route to Kalecut, he set fire to their town, the houses of which were constructed of hurdles, and compelled the inhabitants to flee into the country.

On the twenty-seventh day they departed, and worked up along the coast, but unfortunately fell to leeward of Quiloa, which they were unable to regain, and were compelled to stand on to Mombassa, seventy leagues further north. Here they found a flourishing town built of stone, inhabited by Moors, and abounding in fruits of all kinds, fowls, cattle, and sheep without tails. The inhabitants were richly dressed in silks, gold, &c., and the king sent samples of spices, corn, &c., and promised to supply De Gama with gold, silver, amber, and other commodities, at a less price than he could get them anywhere else, which offer De Gama resolved to accept upon his return, if he should not find the market at Kalecut favorable.

In endeavoring to enter the harbor De Gama's ship touched bottom, and he was compelled to come to an anchor. His two Moorish pilots took advantage of the accident to jump overboard and swim to shore. This excited the admiral's suspicion, and to ascertain the true state of the matter he took two of the Moors, whom he had brought from Mozambique, and by dropping hot fat upon their flesh, compelled them to confess that a plot had been laid for the destruction of the ships, and that the pilots had escaped, thinking it had been detected. In the night the Moors came off in great numbers to attack the ships, but were easily frightened away.

On the thirteenth De Gama left Mombassa, and on the way to Melinda he overtook and captured two small Mohammedan vessels, with a good store of gold and silver. Arrived off Melinda the Portuguese were surprised to find a large and flourishing town, with regular streets, and houses several stories high. The city was inhabited by a great many Arab merchants, who carried on an extensive trade with the countries of the Red Sea and India. At first no notice was taken of their arrival, but De Gama having put on shore an old Moor upon a ledge over against the town, a boat was soon sent for him from the city, and he was taken before the king, to whom he explained De Gama's wish to communicate with him. A polite answer, with a present of sheep and fruits, was returned, and the next day the ships were moored nearer in towards the city, and anchored alongside of four India ships manned by Christians. These Christians, by permission of the king, visited the Portuguese ships. They were brown-complexioned, well-proportioned men. They wore large beards

and long hair, and represented themselves to be natives of India. In order to test their religious principles, De Gama ordered them to be shown a picture of the Virgin, and some of the Apostles. Without hesitation they fell down and worshipped it, giving thus incontestable evidence of an orthodox faith.

The next day the king of Melinda came to visit the admiral in great state. He was accompanied by a number of Moors, richly dressed, and several musicians. The admiral, with his principal officers, went to meet him in his boat, and at the king's request took his seat in the royal barge. The king asked many questions as to the part of the world he came from, the object of his coming, &c., and promised that he would send him a pilot for Kalecut. The king was as good as his word, and although De Gama refused to comply with his pressing invitations to land, he sent him an experienced pilot named Kanaca, or according to De Faria, Melemo Kana. "This man was so experienced in his profession, that being shown an astrolabe, he hardly thought it worthy of notice, as being used to more considerable instruments." And indeed the Portuguese found the compass, charts, and quadrant in use with the Moors about this coast.

Having made all preparations, De Gama left Melinda on Tuesday, the twenty-second of April, and stretched off into that immense, and to him unknown tract of ocean, which lay between him and the grand and crowning object of his voyage. Hitherto he had been simply coasting along the shores of Africa, never long out of sight of land, and the tedium of the way relieved by continued novelty and adventure. Now he was to quit the shores which had served him as a shelter and a guide, and dare the dangers of the trackless ocean which filled the space of more than two thousand miles between Melinda and Kalecut. It needed in the leader of such an expedition a sound head and a strong heart. De Gama had both.

The voyage was exceedingly pleasant. On the twenty-eighth they saw the north star for the first time in many months, and on Friday, the seventeenth of May, they descried land, steering southeast; on the twentieth they came within sight of the high hills near Kalecut, and anchored in the open road, about two leagues from the city. Soon several boats came off and conducted the vessels to an anchorage nearer the town.

The first operation of De Gama was to send on shore one of his corps of criminals that he had brought with him from Portugal, with directions to find out what kind of reception was likely to be accorded to them. As soon as this man landed the crowd collected around him, but as he was unable to speak Arabic, they conducted him to the house of a Moor, named Monzayde, who could speak Spanish, and who saluted him at once with the polite exclamation, "The devil take you, what have you come for?" After some further questions, the Moor said that he was acquainted with the Portuguese at Tunis, and liked them very well, but he could not conceive how they had reached India by sea. He accompanied the man back to the ships, and at his first approach he accosted De Gama in Spanish, "Good luck! good luck! many rubies, many emeralds. Thou art bound to give God thanks, for he has brought you where there are all sorts of spices and precious stones, with all the riches of the world." The admiral and his friends wept for joy at being addressed, after so long a voyage and in such a distant country, in a Christian tongue. Monzayde promised to do all the service to the new-comers in his power, and informed them that the king, who at that moment was away from the city, would un-

doubtedly be glad to receive him, especially if he had come in reference to trade, as his revenues arose almost wholly from duties upon merchandise.

As soon as he heard of this arrival, the king of Kalecut, whose proper title was "Samorin," sent to invite the admiral on shore, an invitation which De Gama resolved to accept, although he was strongly opposed by his brother and other officers, who represented that the safety of the expedition depended upon him, and that there would be great danger, if not from the Samorin and his subjects, at least from the numerous Moorish merchants who resided in the place, and whose jealousy would be fully aroused. De Gama, however, trusting to the representations of Monzayde that it was for the interest of the Samorin to extend the trade of his city, resolved to go in person; and on the twenty-eighth of May, he landed with a suit of twelve persons. The kutwal or governor of the town was ready on the beach with an escort and litters to receive him. On their way to the city they were shown a large temple, which the Portuguese concluded, from several figures that they saw and ceremonies that were practised, to be Christian. In a niche in the wall there was a figure, which, when their attendants saw it, they exclaimed Mary, and the Portuguese, who could not see it distinctly in the gloom, taking it to be an image of the Virgin, fell upon their knees and worshipped. One of them, Juan de Sala, had some doubts upon the subject, and excited a laugh by exclaiming, "If this be the devil, I worship God." As they proceeded on their way, the crowds collected in great numbers, and it was only by the strenuous exertions of the nobles and troops that a way could be made for them. Arrived at the palace, they were received by the Samorin in great state and with every mark of respect. He was reclining in a large room, the walls and the floor covered with rich velvet and silks, upon a sofa of white silk and gold. He was clothed in fine linen wrought with gold and covered with pearls, his headdress was filled with precious stones, and his fingers and toes loaded with diamond rings. The attendants all held their left hands before their mouths, so that their breath should not reach the royal lungs, and to prevent any violation of etiquette by spitting or sneezing.

De Gama advanced, making three polite bows, to which the Samorin replied by a slight nod. When all were seated, fruits were brought in, and then water in a vessel having a golden spout. Being informed that it was indecent to touch the spout with their lips, they were compelled to follow the custom of the country, and hold the vessel at some distance, while pouring the water into their mouths; but being unpractised in this novel mode they made many mistakes, and frequently spilled the water over them, much to the diversion of the court. At length the business of the meeting commenced. The Samorin listened to De Gama's representations, made many inquiries as to the power of the king of Portugal and the distance of his dominions, and promised to send him an ambassador, and to give De Gama all necessary assistance and protection. But now commenced the machinations of the Moors, who had for a long time the monopoly of the trade by way of the Red Sea and Alexandria, and who were justly suspicious that the competition of the Portuguese would lessen their gains. The kutwal and other nobles were bribed, and it was represented that De Gama was no ambassador or merchant, but a pirate who had committed great outrages upon the towns of Mozambique, Mombassa, and Melinda, on the coast of Africa. The Samorin's feelings were much changed by these reports, and when the next day De Gama went to

him, he kept him waiting three hours. It had been represented to him that the present that De Gama was, according to custom, about to make to him, was unworthy of his rank. De Gama apologized for its meanness, stating that the king, his master, had not expected to find so powerful a monarch, and that therefore he had not prepared a proper present, but that next time it should be made. He also replied in such a convincing way to the falsehoods of the Moors, and so strongly insisted upon the desire of the king of Portugal to cultivate the most amicable commercial relations, that the Samorin was for the time appeased. But this good understanding did not last long. The Samorin seems to have been completely under the influence of the kutwal and other nobles, who had all been gained by the Moors. De Gama and his companions were confined, and various attempts were made to force from them presents, and an order to the captains of the ships to send their goods. At last he was compelled to direct Paul de Gama to send part of the goods. When they had been landed, the kutwal suffered De Gama to go on board his ships, but was greatly disappointed to find that the admiral was not disposed to trust himself ashore any more, or to send any more goods. In the mean time he acquainted the Samorin, by means of his factor whom he had left on shore, of the treatment he had received. The Samorin pretended to be much incensed, and promised to punish the offenders, and to send some merchants to purchase the goods. The promise, however, amounted to nothing. The merchants came, but they were all in the interest of the Moors, and bought nothing; continued negotiations were going on, the object of which turned out to be to amuse the admiral until a fleet could be fitted out to capture him. But De Gama was not so easily deceived. He waited until he had an opportunity to seize upon a boat-load of principal natives, whom he held as hostages for the safety of his factor, who had been imprisoned. An exchange was soon effected, and De Gama, disgusted with the opposition and treachery of the Moors and the Samorin's officers, resolved to set out on his return voyage, bearing a letter, which the Samorin wrote by Diaz, the factor, to the king of Portugal, expressing his earnest wish for the commencement of a regular trade.

Two days after leaving Kalicut, the Portuguese, during a calm, were attacked by sixty large boats, full of soldiers, but a wind luckily springing up, they escaped. Had it been any other season of the year, De Gama's vessels would probably have been destroyed by the Samorin's fleet, which fortunately was hauled up on shore, in winter-quarters. For four months the squadron encountered bad weather and head winds. The scurvy began to show itself among them in its worst form, and both officers and crews began to give themselves up to despair, notwithstanding the exhortations of De Gama, who vainly labored to disabuse them of the notion they had taken up, that storms always prevailed in that part of the ocean. At length a fair wind came to his assistance, and in sixteen days the sight of the African coast dispelled the fears of his people. On the morning of the third of February, 1499, they found themselves close to the city of Magadoxo; standing in down the coast, and anchoring every night, they were attacked by several boat-loads of Moors, at a short distance above Melinda, but easily drove them off with their guns. Having arrived at Melinda, they were well received. An ambassador to the king of Portugal was sent on board, and after a rest of four days they got under weigh. Our space will not suffer us to particularize all their movements and adven-

tures; suffice it to say, that on the twentieth of March they doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and entered the Atlantic. Touching at St. Jago, one of the Cape de Verdes, De Gama was compelled to abandon his ship, as unseaworthy, and hire a caravel; and his brother, Paul de Gama, who had been suffering with consumption, was forced to put in at Terceira, where he died. Vasco reached the Tagus in September, 1499, having been absent two years and two months.

Thus ended this most brilliant and important voyage—a voyage which was fraught with more important consequences than any other that was ever made, unless we except that of Columbus. From it may be dated the downfall of the maritime states of Italy, of Egypt, Turkey, Arabia, and all those countries from the Red Sea to the Caspian, which thrived by the several routes of the overland trade between Europe and India; and from it may be dated the rise of that great modern commercial colossus, the British empire. The Portuguese were of course overjoyed at its successful termination, and it is particularly recorded that none were more loud in their demonstrations of joy than those who had all along scouted and opposed the attempt as impracticable. Thanksgivings were ordered throughout the kingdom for the success of the expedition, and all honors were heaped upon its gallant commander.

ART. IV.—CANADIAN COMMERCE.

CANADA, the most important portion of British America, lies nearly all between the Hudson's Bay territories and the United States, and within the basin of the river St. Lawrence, from about 42 to 52 degrees north latitude. It was colonized by the French in 1608, and conquered by the British in 1759. There are two provinces, separated by the Ottawa river: *Lower Canada*, adjoining the estuary of the St. Lawrence; area, 250,000 square miles; population (1836) 664,631, chiefly of French origin; capital, Quebec—population 30,000. *Upper Canada*, contiguous to the great lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, and Superior; area, 105,000 square miles; population 371,332, chiefly of British origin; capital, Toronto—population 9,765. Each province had formerly a governor, executive and legislative councils, and a house of representatives—the governor of the lower province being likewise captain-general of all British America; but, by the act 3 and 4 Vict. c. 35 (1840, July 23) of the imperial parliament, the two provinces have been united.

Quebec is a strongly fortified city on the north bank of the St. Lawrence, in 46 deg. 49 min. north, and 71 deg. 16 min. west. It is divided into two parts: the Lower Town, where are all the commercial establishments, is situated immediately under Cape Diamond, nearly on a level with the water; the Upper Town is on a rock 200 feet above; and the communication with the lower town is maintained by a winding street, at the top of which is a fortified gate. The basin of Quebec is very spacious, being sufficient to contain 100 sail of the line. In 1836, 1,146 ships entered this port, having a tonnage of 344,206; of which Great Britain, 880 ships, 291,235 tons; British colonies, 174 ships, 22,393 tons; United States, 50 ships, 19,619 tons; foreign states, 42 ships, 10,959 tons.

Montreal, in 45 deg. 30 min. north, 73 deg. 30 min. west, lies about 180 miles above Quebec, on the south side of the island of Montreal, which is formed by the confluence of the St. Lawrence and the Ottawa; population 35,000. Vessels of 600 tons come up to it. The harbor is not large, but is always secure; the greatest disadvantage is the rapid of St. Mary, about a mile below the town. Montreal is the commercial capital of Canada, being favorably situated for the lumber trade, and for intercourse with the upper province and the United States. Most of the business, even in Quebec, is carried on by branches from its mercantile houses. In 1836, there entered this port 98 ships, 22,289 tons; of which Great Britain, 73 ships, 19,410 tons; British colonies, 23 ships, 2,392 tons; foreign states, 2 ships, 487 tons.

Canada, though in some parts hilly, is upon the whole a level and well-watered country. The located portions are mostly confined to the banks of the St. Lawrence, the lower part of the Ottawa, the north margin of the lakes Ontario and Erie, and the southeast banks of lakes Huron and St. Clair, which are generally fertile. Beyond these districts, the country, more especially towards the north and west, is very imperfectly known. The climate is salubrious, and heat and cold, though felt in their extremes, are not oppressive, owing to the purity of the atmosphere. In the lower province, the medium of cold in winter is about 15 deg. Fahr., its maximum about 20; and the medium summer heat is from 75 to 80 deg., its maximum 103. Early in December the St. Lawrence is closed by ice, which seldom totally disappears before the first week in May. The five months from May to September, inclusive, comprise the spring, summer, and autumn of the Lower Canadian year. At Montreal, and in the upper province, the spring commences from six weeks to two months earlier, according to its latitude, and the climate is in every respect milder; indeed, in the west part of Upper Canada, the duration of frost and snow is not more than half, or even one third, as long as in Quebec. The severity of the Canadian winter is much less unfavorable to the operations of agriculture than might at first appear. The snow effectually prevents the frost from penetrating deeply into the earth, and the rapid progress of the spring thaws, followed by frosty nights, pulverizes the soil, and helps to prepare it for seed. Against the severity of the winter, must also be set down the steady weather which prevails during summer in both provinces, and which renders the progress of vegetation so rapid, that the Canadian harvest is early, and almost always secured before bad weather commences. Hence the climate of Canada, severe though it is, presents no obstacle to the unlimited extension of almost every description of produce, except such as is peculiar to a tropical climate.

The Canadians are scattered over a vast extent of country, some parts of which are 800 or 900 miles distant from the port of Quebec, and 600 or 700 from that of Montreal. But owing to the facility of communication by means of lakes and rivers, the expense of transport is comparatively small; and, from the improvements which are taking place in railroads and canals, this expense will soon be greatly reduced. The St. Lawrence is navigable for large ships to Montreal, about 600 miles, and to Quebec, 420 miles, for ships of the line; above Montreal, its current is broken by rapids. The Ottawa and Saguenay, the principal tributaries of the St. Lawrence, are only partially navigable, having their course likewise interrupted by falls and rapids. The principal canals are the Grenville

and Rideau canals, which, in connection with the river Ottawa and the La Chine canal, form a vast chain of internal navigation, reaching by a circuitous line from Montreal to Kingston. The Welland canal, a most important work, connects lakes Ontario and Erie, avoiding the falls of Niagara. Besides these there are various smaller canals and railroads, both in the upper and lower provinces.

The culture of the soil is the principal occupation of the people; a circumstance which almost necessarily follows from the abundance of rich land and the total absence of taxes; for these advantages more than compensate the high price of labor. The chief agricultural product is wheat, the crop of which is estimated at 11,000,000 bushels. The average export of wheat and flour by sea, in the four years 1832–1835, was equivalent to 780,000 bushels, besides which, a considerable quantity from the upper province found its way to the United States; but in 1836 it was much smaller, amounting only to 18,125 barrels flour, and 9,716 bushels wheat. The quantity of other articles of agricultural produce has been hitherto inconsiderable; the most important are flax, tobacco, and salted provisions.

The staple exports of the colony, however, are timber and ashes. The former is the principal; but as a portion of the trade is the result of a legislative monopoly arising out of the high duties in the united kingdom on foreign European timber, with low duties on Canadian, that portion can last only as long as the monopoly is maintained. The chief articles of timber exported to the united kingdom and the colonies in 1836, were—oak, 22,805 tons; elm, 18,783 tons; pine, 315,967 tons; 6,707,278 staves, chiefly puncheon and standard pieces; deals, deal-ends, battens, boards, and planks, 2,785,520 pieces; besides ash and birch timber, hoops, hand-spikes, and smaller articles: the whole amounting in value to £703,165. Besides the timber carried by sea to the united kingdom and West Indies, there is a considerable quantity of boards, scantling, and other sawn timber, prepared for the United States and for home consumption. The timber trade of Canada with the West Indies and the United States, as it exists without protection, cannot be affected by any change of the duties. On the other hand, the advantage which the colony now enjoys with the mother country may be destroyed by the removal of those restrictions by which it was originally created, and which is at present contemplated. It would exceed the limits of the present article to describe the effects which are likely to result from this change. The prevailing opinion is, that Canada has other means of employing her labor and capital independent of the timber trade, and that the change will be beneficial, not only to the mother country, but to the colony. The clearing of the land from wood to fit it for cultivation, gives rise to the production of pot and pearl ashes. The usual course is to burn the timber on the ground, and if the price be remunerating, the wood-ashes are converted into the ashes of commerce. If, however, the rate be discouraging, they are harrowed in for the improvement of the soil. The quantity shipped is annually about 36,000 barrels, consisting of about two thirds pot and one third pearl ashes. Of late years this trade has been on the decline.

The fisheries of Canada form a subordinate branch of industry; but still the gulf and lower portion of the St. Lawrence furnish a considerable quantity of fish and oil for home consumption, and leave a small surplus for export. The produce of the fisheries in the county of Gaspé and

the Magdalen Islands in 1836, consisted of—cod, 100,542 cwt.; cod oil, 37,162 gallons; whale oil, 25,120 gallons, besides salmon and other fish, the whole amounting in value to £86,624.

Montreal was formerly the emporium of a very considerable portion of the fur trade, which was carried on by two rival companies—the Hudson's Bay and the North West. After the failure of the latter association, most of the skins were carried direct to the residents at Hudson's Bay, who have an establishment also at La Chine, near Montreal. But although not a single bale of furs was shipped from that city, we should be justified in ranking the fur trade among the resources of Canada, because a large importation of British goods takes place through Montreal, and wages are paid to the hunters by drafts on the company in London. There is, however, a small though not an increasing exportation of this article from Montreal, consisting chiefly of skins of the muskrat, martin, beaver, and otter.

Of manufactures, the principal is that of ashes, already noticed. The others are as follows: Cloth, a kind of gray homespun or *étouffe du pays*, worn by the *habitant* or farmer of Lower Canada; coarse cotton, but only in small quantities; coarse linens; carpets and mats formed of threads obtained from old materials; straw hats; worsted stockings and socks; caps; leather mittens; iron wares at St. Maurice; nails; maple sugar; bricks; white soap, candles, leather, linseed oil and cake are manufactured to an extent sufficient to furnish a surplus for exportation. Whiskey is largely produced in both the Canadas. Starch, blue, cider, cordage, paper, and a few other articles are also made, but in very small quantities. It is to be observed that these manufactures, with the exception of whiskey, exist almost wholly without protection. But the domestic manufactures are supported more by the habits of the people than by cheapness; in fact the *étouffe du pays* is imitated in Britain at a much lower price than the Canadian cloth usually sells at in the native market.

Ship-building is an important employment in all the North American colonies. The average number of vessels built annually in Canada, during the eleven years ending 1835, was 26, and their tonnage 8,249. These ships are built of oak, and are of much better workmanship than those of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, which for the most part are constructed of pine.

The imports chiefly consist of British manufactures, principally cottons and woollens; in 1836 the former amounted in value to £472,892 sterling, the latter to £303,166. The woollens are mostly of the coarser and warmer sorts, such as blankets, flushings, flannels, and the coarse cloths produced in the manufacturing towns of Yorkshire. The cottons are chiefly power loom shirtings, striped and checked cloths, printed calicoes, ginghams, muslins, cambrics, and also fustains, velveteens, and similar fabrics. The other articles of British produce and manufacture imported in 1836, were as follows: Hardware, value £74,249; wrought iron, £56,298; unwrought iron, £35,345; linens, £61,082; silks, £59,488; British refined sugar, £49,628; glass, £84,069; haberdashery, £71,646; earthenware, £15,606; apparel and slops, £33,975; painters' colors, £17,426; besides coals, leather, books, candles, soap, stationery, salt, lead, cordage, hats, and a variety of other goods.

The other imports are principally composed of the following articles:

tea, about 680,000 lbs., brought chiefly from Britain; raw sugar, about 3,000,000 lbs. (maple sugar being extensively grown in the colony;) rum, 330,000 galls.; brandy and gin, 220,000 galls.; wine, nearly 3,500 pipes, namely, port, 500; Madeira, 200; sherry, 200; Teneriffe and other low white wines, 700; Spanish and other low red wines, 1,600; French and German, 300. London enjoys the chief part of this trade to Canada, as there is a discriminating duty of £7 7s. per ton of 252 galls. on wines "direct from the place of growth." A considerable quantity of low white and red wines is also brought from the Mediterranean, after having been landed at Gibraltar; an expedient by which the high duty is evaded. The West India produce is for the most part imported direct from the place of growth, and chiefly from Grenada, Jamaica, and Demerara. Halifax, in Nova Scotia, has recently become an entrepôt for exchanging the productions of Canada and the West Indies; the former paying for her purchases in flour and other provisions. St. Johns, in Newfoundland, also enjoys a small inter-colonial trade.

The inland trade with the United States is considerable. A portion of the ashes, flour and other provisions consumed in Canada, are derived from thence. In early spring, teas, coffee, fruits, tobacco, and various groceries are imported from New York by the way of Lake Champlain. The exports at St. Johns, on that lake, the chief seat of this trade, amounted, in 1832, to £8,197; the imports to £146,807. In 1833, the former were £20,500, the latter £104,500. Of the imports fully two thirds consisted of agricultural produce, all, it is said, required for Canadian consumption. An intercourse with the United States is also carried on from different points in Upper Canada, the duties on which amounted, in 1835, to above £10,000. Of this there were paid at Toronto, £3,750; Kingston, £1,517; Burlington, £1,438; Port Stanley, £835; Brockville, £549. When commodities are exported on American account, the transmission of a bill of exchange on New York easily closes the transaction. Shipments are also made to the West Indies from that city, as well as from some of the more southern towns, by order of Canadian houses. These are usually paid for by drafts on London.

The following statement of the commerce and navigation of the principal ports of the Upper and Lower Provinces, derived from the Montreal Courier, exhibits as full, recent, and accurate information of the present condition and amount of Canadian commerce as can be obtained.

IMPORTS IN 1841.

ARRIVALS IN QUEBEC AND MONTREAL.

	<i>Vessels.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Men.</i>
From Great Britain, with cargoes	298	100,400	4,065
In ballast	571	223,882	8,502
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	869	324,282	12,567
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
From Ireland, with cargoes	17	8,173	294
In ballast	183	58,742	2,348
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	200	66,915	2,642
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>

	<i>Vessels.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Men.</i>
From Gibraltar, in ballast	2	540	19
From Foreign Europe, with cargoes	18	4,423	168
In ballast	67	17,801	634
	85	22,224	797
From Africa, in ballast	2	498	22
From B. N. A. Colonies, with cargoes	102	10,708	546
In ballast	62	17,745	707
	164	28,453	1,253
From B. W. Indies, in ballast	3	829	39
From the United States, with cargoes	15	4,145	167
In ballast	28	13,489	484
	43	17,634	651
Foreign W. Indies, with cargoes	9	1,417	71
In ballast	3	686	29
	12	2,103	100
Grand total	1,380	463,468	18,090

IMPORTS AT QUEBEC IN 1841.

FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

Wines—Madeira, galls. 2,678	Spirits—Whiskey, galls. 154
Port 7,197	Molasses 22,084
Sherry 19,632	Sugar, refined, . lbs. 674,015
Teneriffe . . . 10,843	Bastard 733,064
Spanish 17,404	Muscovado 13,124
French 860	Refined, Foreign, . . . 10,961
Rhenish 151	Muscovado, do 40,269
Canary 115	Coffee, British P. . . . 678
Spirits—Brandy . . . 43,108	do Foreign 2,072
Geneva 24,827	Teas 179,172
Rum, E. I. . . . 20,688	Salts, minots 199,666
do B. P. . . . 2,232	Playing Cards, pks. . . 16,488
Value of merchandise paying 2½ per cent . . . £394,761 14 9	
do of free goods 6,260 5 4	
	£401,022 0 1

FROM IRELAND.

Wines—Port . . galls. 488	Spirits—Rum, . . . galls. 71
Champagne . . . 5	Sugar, Muscovado, lbs. 163,916
Spirits—Whiskey . . . 13	Salt, minots 16,522
Brandy 1,040	

Value of merchandise paying 2½ per cent . . .	£13,460	17	0
do of free goods	14	11	3
	<hr/>		
	£13,475	8	3
	<hr/>		

FROM FRANCE.

Wines—Claret . .	galls. 1,333	Spirits—Brandy .	galls. 4,216
Champagne . .	60	Cordials	166
Value of merchandise paying 2½ per cent . .			<u>£2,175 15 9</u>

FROM SPAIN AND SICILY.

Salt, minots	23,642	Salt, minots	10,312
Wine galls.	1,972		
Value of merchandise		<u>£3 6 8</u>

FROM PORTUGAL AND HAMBURGH.

Wines galls.	276	Sugar, refined, . . lbs.	11,332
Salt, minots	12,342		
Value of merchandise			£1,586 17 0

FROM BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES.

Wines—Madeira	galls. 2	Molasses, foreign, galls.	30,613
Port	808	Sugar, muscovado, for-	
Spanish	1,619	eign,	lbs. 1,754,488
Malaga	152	Sugar, muscovado B. P.	16,449
Fayal	1,216	Coffee, foreign,	42,205
Spirits—Rum, foreign	744	do B. P.	153
Brandy	244	Teas	lbs. 15,730
Treacle	1,900	Cigars	224
		Salt,	minots 14,587
Value of merchandise paying 2½ per cent		£5,073	10 6
do of free goods		13,518	0 8
		£18,591	11 2

FROM THE BRITISH WEST INDIES.

Value of merchandise paying 2½ per cent . . .	£596	14	4
	<hr/>		

FROM THE UNITED STATES.

Wines—Port . . . galls.	2	Coffee lbs.	66,524
Champagne . . .	46	Salt, minots	1,647
French	3,827	Tobacco, leaf, . . lbs.	41,446
Spirits—Rum	34,436	do manufac. . . .	137,780
Cordials	218	Snuff	32
		Cigars	691
Value of merchandise paying 2½ per cent . . .		£3,549	16 7
do of free goods		12,755	4 5
		<hr/>	
		£16,305	1 0
		<hr/>	

FROM CUBA.

Rum . . . galls.	7,578	Sugar . . . lbs.	1,159,777
Molasses . . . "	4,715	Coffee . . . "	224
Value of merchandise			<u>£100 10 0</u>

IMPORTS AT MONTREAL.

TOTAL FROM ALL PLACES.

Wines—Madeira galls.	9,865	Coffee . . . lbs.	104,122
All other . . .	134,481	Tobacco, manufact'd	2,288
Spirits—Foreign . . .	160,297	Snuff . . .	8
Rum, E.I.&B.P.	74,450	Teas—Hyson . . .	23,202
British . . .	2,918	Bohea . . .	11,888
Molasses . . .	12,082	Other . . .	825,202
Sugar, refined, lbs.	2,165,566	Salt, . . . minots	43,980
Muscovado do . . .	5,642,288	Playing cards, pks.	31,584

N. B.—Three per cent has been deducted from all the above articles, except the playing cards.

Value of merchandise paying 2½ per cent . . .	£1,534,767 0 2
do of free goods	87,077 1 9
	<u>£1,621,844 1 11</u>

IMPORTS AT GASPE.

31 Vessels—2,770 tons—222 men.

Spirits—Rum galls.	2,198	Biscuit . . . bags	645
Brandy & Gin,	1,310	Pork . . . bar'ls.	176
Wine . . .	314	Lard . . . casks	8
Cordials . . .	4	do . . . kegs	15
Molasses . . .	8,134	Butter . . . bar'ls.	9
Sugar, refined, lbs.	13,433	do . . . kegs	15
Tea . . .	895	Cheese . . . packages	2
Tobacco . . .	3,050	Salt . . . tons	216
Coffee . . .	779	Tar . . . bar'ls.	36
Raisins . . . boxes	21	Pitch . . . do	64
do . . . ¼ do	100	Peas . . . do	50
Figs . . . boxes	4	Peppermint . . . galls.	108
Rice . . . tierces	2	Potatoes . . . bar'ls.	14
Drugs . . . boxes	1	Meal . . . do	8
Seeds . . . bags	1	Chocolate . . . boxes	18
Flour . . . bar'ls.	1,109	Bricks . . . loose	2,000
Biscuit . . . do	40		
Value of merchandise			<u>£5,948 5 5</u>

IMPORTS AT NEW CARLISLE.

47 Vessels—6,649 tons—358 men.

Spirits—Brandy galls.	1,417	Wine . . . galls.	405
Gin . . .	305	Coffee . . . lbs.	2,169
Rum . . .	5,158	Tea . . .	1,356

Sugar, refined, .	lbs.	3,410	Turpentine .	bar'ls.	3
Muscovado .	.	24,744	Apples .	.	6
Tobacco .	.	1,944	Onions .	.	16
Snuff .	.	52	Salt .	tons	685
Chocolate .	boxes	3	Soap .	cwts.	10
do .	lbs.	172	Vinegar .	hhds.	10
Molasses .	galls.	3,882	Tar .	bar'ls.	12
Raisins .	cwts.	2	Bricks .	.	16,500
Pork .	bar'ls.	94	Codfish .	cwts.	2,833
Beef .	.	307	Cod sounds .	kegs	9
Biscuit .	.	12	Fish oil .	galls.	1,006
Flour .	.	268	Juniper knees .	pcs.	585
Corn .	.	12	do logs .	.	181
Rosin .	.	1	do tons .	.	15
Meal .	.	75	Rice .	packages	15
Pitch .	.	62			
Value of merchandise	£2,066	12 3

EXPORTS IN 1841.

PORTS OF QUEBEC AND MONTREAL.

To Great Britain.

Cleared 1,050 vessels—389,865 tons—14,917 men : of which 32 built this year, containing 19,611 tons.

Apples	bar'ls.	422	Flaxseed	bags	123
Ash timber	tons	1,836	do	minots	1,191
Ashes, pot,	bar'ls.	14,066	Flour	bar'ls.	338,278
Ashes, pearl,	do	7,287	do	$\frac{1}{2}$ do	318
Balsam	packgs.	52	Furs	packages	90
Barkwork	do	20	Gunstocks	pieces	120
Barley	minots	4,504	Handspikes	do	16,147
Basswood	tons	9	Hickory timber	tons	27
Battens	pieces	77,566	Honey	packages	91
Beef	tierces	48	Horns	do	6
do	bar'ls.	69	Horns (ox)	pieces	19,250
Birch timber	tons	1,610	Knees	do	231
Boards	pieces	21,291	Lard	puns.	137
Bones	tons	50	do	casks	853
do	hhds.	10	do	lbs.	7,428
Butter	kegs	1,090	Lathwood	cords	3,374
do	pounds	14,560	Linseed	casks	10
Butternut timber	tons	19	Maple timber	tons	55
Canoes	.	6	Masts and bow-		
Castorum	lbs.	1	sprits	pieces	1,399
Cheese	do	8,950	Moose deer	.	2
Corn, (Indian)	minots	160	Oak timber	tons	31,364
Cranberries	packages	16	Onions	bar'ls.	45
Deals	pieces	1,569,496	Oars	pieces	48,123
Deals, spruce	do	156,023	Oats	bar'ls.	86
Deal ends	do	111,808	Oatmeal	do	4,541
Elm timber	tons	31,213	Oil cake	casks	13,163
Essence (spruce)	packages	15	Peas	minots	126,556

Pine timber(red) tons	94,588	Staves, (barrel) pieces	243,579
do white	222,255	Tamarac timber tons	318
Plants packages	42	Tobacco hhds.	61
Pork bar'ls.	65	Treenails pieces	4,000
Salmon tierces	11	Wheat minots	450,594
do bar'ls.	14	<i>Imported Articles.</i>	
Seeds (grass) do	20	Pitch pine tons	239
Shooks (pun.) packs	181	do pieces	95
Spars pieces	2,598	Porks bar'ls.	20
Specimens, packages	15	Returned goods packages	374
Spokes pieces	1,896	Wine pipes	1
Staves (standard) do	1,292,311	do casks	2
do (pun.) do	3,783,039	do cases	14
do (pipe) do	396,509		

TO IRELAND.

Cleared, 237 vessels—78,740 tons—31,117 men : nine of which built this year, 3,201 tons.

Apples, bbls.	28	Knees, pieces	31
Ash timber, tons	502	Lathwood, cords	674
Ashes, pot, bbls.	586	Maple timber, tons	12
“ pearl, “	42	Masts, pieces	22
Balsam, packages	1	Oak timber, tons	3,110
Basswood, tons	4	Oars, pieces	1,846
Battens, pieces	10,989	Pine timber, tons	18,493
Birch timber, tons	94	Pine, white	38,465
Boards, pieces	4,138	Shooks, packs	824
Butternut, tons	6	Spars, pieces	729
Deals, pieces	641,014	Staves, (standard,) pieces	267,992
Deals, spruce, pieces	198,781	“ (puncheon,) “	267,992
Deal ends	18,542	“ (pipe,) “	193,737
Elm timber, tons	2,461	“ (barrel,) “	564,502
Essence, spruce, packages	3	Wheat, minots	111,203
Handspikes, pieces	1,696		

TO THE BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES.

Cleared, 146 vessels—12,663 tons—700 men : of which built this year, one vessel, 77 tons.

Ale, gallons	60	Buffalo robes, cases	18
Apples, barrels,	370	“ loose	24
Ash timber, tons	2	Butter, kegs	179
Ashes, pot, bbls.	31	“ pounds	99,797
Axes, packages	2	Calf-skins, doz.	5
Bacon, cwts.	4	Candles, boxes	262
Barley, bbls.	48	“ pounds	5,826
“ minots	34	Casks, empty	129
Beans, “	90	Carriages	3
Beef, bbls.	1,753	Chairs, dozens	4
Biscuit, cwts.	1,850	Cheese, packages	8
Boards, pieces	200	“ cwts.	22

Cheese, pounds	3,635	Raisins, boxes	152
Cigars, cases	4	“ half do.	20
Codfish, cwts.	303	Rum, galls.	237
Flour, bbls.	13,494	Salt, minots	5,380
Glass, boxes	626	Shrub, galls.	25
“ half boxes	421	Soap, pounds	6,934
Herrings, bbls.	310	Stoves, number	75
Iron, bars	199	Pork, bbls.	18,313
“ packages	9	Shingles, bundles	15
Lard, kegs	35	Shoes, packages	3
Meal, bbls.	50	Shoe packs, “	2
Merchandise, packages	256	Shooks, puncheon, packs	1,778
Fish, pickled, cwts.	205	“ hhds. “	550
“ boxes	399	“ tierce “	146
Flour, bbls.	11,389	“ barrel “	5,000
Furs, packages	12	Skins, seal, puncheons	9
Hams, casks	40	“ hhds.	1
“ tierces	16	“ loose	3,100
Harness, sets	18	Soap, boxes	301
Hats, packages	4	“ pounds	75,217
Herrings, bbls.	84	Spars, pieces	12
Hoops, pieces	6,000	Staves “	127,589
Lard, kegs	442	Stoves “	83
“ pounds	171,628	Stove-pipes, lengths	926
Leather, packages	99	Wheat, minots	1,065
Meal, Indian, bbls.	70	Whiskey, galls.	529
Meal, oat, bbls.	175	<i>Imported articles.</i>	
Merchandise, packages,	12	Beef, tierces	40
Moccasins, “	22	“ bbls.	418
Nails, “	74	Butter, pounds,	1,374
Oak, pieces	510	Candles, “	240
Oil, linseed, casks	1	Cordage, “	28
Oil, fish, galls.	50	Sugar, bbls.	4
Onions, bbls.	159	Tea, pounds	2,023
Peas, minots	2,016	Tobacco, “	2,685
Peppermint, galls.	24	“ kegs	179
Molasses, puncheons,	3	Vinegar, galls.	272
Paint, packages	231	Wine, casks	1
Pork, bbls.	2,985	“ cases	1
		“ galls.	159

TO THE BRITISH WEST INDIES.

Cleared, 16 vessels—2,407 tons—137 men : of which built this year, one vessel, 125 tons.

Alewives, bbls.	20	Butter, lbs.	2,400
Ale, hhds.	12	Codfish, casks	75
“ galls.	3,480	“ cwts.	1,207
Beef, tierces	1	“ boxes	88
“ bbls.	725	Flour, bbls.	3,879
“ half do.	206	Herrings, “	106
Biscuit, cwts.	40	“ half bbls.	10
Butter, kegs	310	“ boxes	62

Canadian Commerce.

549

Hoops, pieces	4,000	Soap, boxes	118
Lard, pounds	6,900	Staves, pieces	79,700
Mackerel, bbls.	79	Stoves, No.	1
“ half do.	22	Tallow, kegs	10
“ kegs	38	Tongues, half bbls.	20
Oats, minots	512	“ kegs	56
Oatmeal, bbls.	26	<i>Imported Articles.</i>	
Oil, fish, galls.	2,967	Beef, half bbls.	50
Onions, bbls.	81	Brandy, hhds.	7
Pine timber, tons	100	Flour, bbls.	70
Pork, bbls.	11,233	Merchandise, packages	150
“ half do.	313	Pork, bbls.	400
Potatoes, bbls.	64	Raisins, boxes,	52
Salmon, casks	6	Salt, minots	75
“ tierces	202	Whiskey, puncheons	2
“ bbls.	62	“ galls.	780
Shooks, puncheons,	841	Wine, hhds.	1

TO THE UNITED STATES.

Cleared, one vessel, 178 tons.

Deals, boards, and scantling,		Scantling, birch, pieces	443
pieces	4,020	Boards and planks, “	360
Deals, spruce, pieces	60	Scrap iron, casks	39
Staves, puncheon	2,127	Spars, pieces	53

TO FRANCE.

Cleared, 8 vessels—3,657 tons—145 men.

Masts and bowsprits, pieces	495	Spars, pieces	127
Ash timber, tons	54	Staves, standard, pieces	21,417
Elm “ “	116	“ puncheon, “	18,149
Oak “ “	66	Furs, packages	2
Pine “ “	822	Bark work, “	3
Deals, pieces	7,773	Segars, boxes	36
Oars “	2,988		

TO NEW SOUTH WALES.

Cleared, 1 vessel, 254 tons.

Herrings, bbls.	20	Iron, bars	1,010
Salmon, tierces	26	Nails, casks	22
“ bbls.	1	Handspikes, pieces	136
Mackerel, “	4	Oars, “	144
Codfish, casks	59	Deals, “	812
“ boxes	40	Boards, feet	498,400
Pork, bbls.	355	“ pieces	50
“ half do.	20	Blue, boxes	25
Beef, tierces	143	Brooms, doz.	50
“ bbls.	33	Cider, hhds.	6
Flour “	395	Crackers, bbls.	31
Vinegar, bbls.	16	Snuff, cases	7
Coloring, kegs	1	Whiskey, puncheons	5
Pails, doz.	5	Wine, cases	10
		“ baskets	20

TO RIO DE LA PLATA.

Cleared, 2 vessels, 531 tons.

Ash staves, pieces	600	Pine scantling, pieces,	93
Pipe " "	1,765	Boards "	6
W. I. " "	777	Coach-wheel spokes, pieces	8,107
Birch scantling, pieces	237	Spars, "	79
Oak " "	59	Masts, "	25
Ash " "	88		

EXPORTS AT GASPE.

Vessels 22.—Tons 2,073.—Number of men 135.

Deals, pieces	11,989	Treenails, pieces	2,600
Deal ends, "	1,077	Oars, "	50
Battens, "	978	Merchandise, packages	35
Staves, "	2,950	Codfish, bbls.	26
Boards, "	440	" cwts.	23,257
Spars, "	5	Salmon, bbls.	29
Lathwood, cords	14	Mackerel, "	75
Timber, pieces	469	Fish-oil, galls.	630
		Herrings, bbls.	182

EXPORTS AT NEW CARLISLE.

Vessels 44.—Tons 7,012.—Number of men 354.

Deals, pieces	1,506	Pitch, bbls.	12
Lathwood, "	141	Rice, tierce	1
Oars, "	117	Rum, galls.	120
Spars, "	4	Sugar, lbs.	336
Timber, tons	5,970	Salt, tons	129
Boards, feet	11,370	Codfish, bbls.	80
Shingles, pieces	972,500	" cwts.	22,583
Treenails, "	21,250	" boxes	82
Barley, bbls.	29	Blubber, galls.	559
Butter, cwts.	40	Fish-oil, "	11,913
Coffee, lbs.	40	Salmon, bbls.	95
Flour, bbls.	165	Herrings, "	50
Glass, boxes	8	Beef, "	304
Peas, bbls.	22	Pork, "	50
Potatoes, "	73	Lobsters, kegs	30

MEASURES, WEIGHTS, MONEY, DUTIES, ETC.

Measures and Weights are those of Great Britain, but with the old English measures of capacity. The *minot*, sometimes used in Lower Canada, is an old French measure, 90 of which are commonly estimated at 100 English or Winchester bushels, although the true proportion is 90 to 98.

Money and Exchanges.—Accounts are kept, and sales and purchases are made in pounds, shillings, and pence, *Halifax currency*, which is about 20 per cent inferior to British, though the denominations and proportions are the same. The pound currency is four Spanish dollars, each dollar being called 5s. But the average value of the dollar in the London market is only 4s. 2d.; hence 4s. 2d. sterling=5s. currency; or 16s.

8d. sterling=£1 currency; or £100 sterling=£120 currency. The comparison of exchange is, however, complicated, by the assumption of a par departing widely from the value of the currency. This erroneous par is 4s. 6d. taken as the value of the dollar, or £90 sterling equal to £100 currency; the rule being, add *one ninth* to sterling to obtain currency. To make up the difference between the erroneous par and the average value of the currency—say the approximate par—it is necessary to make use of a nominal premium of exchange. Thus, when exchange is really wholly undisturbed, or, in other words, at par, (£100 sterling selling for £120 currency,) it is said to be at 8 per cent premium. For example, bill on London, sterling £100; add premium 8 per cent £8, makes £108; adding also *one ninth*, £12, we have £120 currency=£100 sterling. The better way would be to quote the dollar, or the pound, or the £100, at what each is respectively worth. Government exchange is thus quoted, so are sovereigns. The commissary-general of Canada quotes his drafts at 4s. 2d. or 4s. 1½d. per dollar, as the case may be; that is, on being paid so many times 5s. currency, he will deliver a bill on the treasury of as many times 4s. 2d. or 4s. 1½d. sterling. Sovereigns are quoted in the Canadian price-lists at 24s. currency (more or less.) Thus, 4s. 2d. sterling per dollar; 24s. currency per sovereign; exchange at 8 per cent premium; and £100 sterling=£120 currency, all mean the same state of the exchange. Fluctuations in the rate of exchange of course revolve round the nominal premium of 8 per cent as around a pivot, so that 6 per cent premium is in fact 2 discount, and 10 per cent only 2 premium. The circulating medium is chiefly composed of British and American coins, and of notes circulated by the various banks. No paper is issued by the government or on the credit of the colony.

The following are the provisions of an act recently passed, regulating the currency of the United Province:

“From and after the passing of this act, the acts 48 Geo. 3, L.C. 59 Geo. 3, L. C., 1st Sec. 10 and 11 Geo. 4, L. C., 2 Vict. L. C., 36 Geo. 3, U. C., 49 Geo. 3, U. C., 7 Geo. 4, U. C., 11 Geo. 4, U. C., 6 Will. 4, U. C., 3 Victoria, U. C., and all other acts relating to the currency, and in anywise contrary to this act, are repealed.

“II. That the pound currency shall be such that the pound sterling, as represented by the British sovereign of the weight and fineness now fixed by the laws of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, shall be equal to, and any such British sovereign shall be a legal tender for, one pound four shillings and four pence currency.

“That nothing in this act shall affect the meaning to be fixed to the words ‘Sterling,’ ‘Sterling money of Great Britain,’ or other words of like import in any law in force in this Province, or any part thereof, when this act shall come into force, or in any contract or any agreement then made therein, but any such law, contract, or agreement, shall be construed according to the intention of the legislature, or of the parties who made the same; but in any law, contract, or agreement made in this Province after this act shall be in force, the pound sterling shall be understood to have the value in currency hereby assigned to the British sovereign of the lawful weight and fineness aforesaid.

“IV. That the eagle of the United States of America, coined before the first day of July, one thousand eight hundred and thirty-four, and weighing eleven pennyweights six grains troy, shall pass and be a legal

tender for two pounds thirteen shillings and four-pence currency ; and the eagle of the United States aforesaid, coined after the day last-mentioned, and before the commencement of the year one thousand eight hundred and forty-one, and weighing ten pennyweights eighteen grains troy, shall pass and be a legal tender for two pounds ten shillings currency.

“ V. That the gold coins of Great Britain and Ireland, or of the United States, coined before the day last aforesaid, being multiples or divisions of those hereinbefore mentioned, and of proportionate weight, shall for proportionate sums pass current, and be a legal tender to any amount by tale, so long as such coins shall not want more than two grains of the weight hereby assigned to them respectively, deducting one half-penny currency for each quarter of a grain any such coin shall want of such weight : Provided always, that in any one payment above the sum of fifty pounds, the payer may pay, or the receiver may insist on receiving, the said British gold coins, or gold coins of the United States aforesaid, coined before the first day of July, one thousand eight hundred and thirty-four, by weight, at the rate of ninety-four shillings and ten pence currency per ounce troy ; and in like manner any sums tendered or to be received in the gold coin of the United States of America, coined since the day last aforesaid, may be weighed in bulk as aforesaid, and shall be a legal tender at the rate of ninety-three shillings currency per ounce troy, when offered in sums not less than fifty pounds currency.

“ VI. That the gold coin of France of forty francs, and its multiples or divisions, coined before the passing of this act, may be weighed in bulk as aforesaid, and shall be a legal tender at the rate of ninety-three shillings and one penny currency per ounce troy, when offered in sums of not less than fifty pounds currency.

“ That the old doubloon of Spain or quadruple pistole, and the Mexican and Chilian doubloon, and the parts thereof respectively, coined before the passing of this act, may be weighed in bulk as aforesaid, and shall be a legal tender at the rate of eighty-nine shillings and seven pence currency per ounce troy, when offered in sums of not less than fifty pounds currency.

“ That the gold coins of La Plata and of Colombia, coined before the passing of this act, may be weighed in bulk as aforesaid, and shall be a legal tender, at the rate of eighty-nine shillings and five pence currency per ounce troy, when offered in sums of not less than fifty pounds currency.

“ That the gold coins of Portugal and of Brazil, coined before the passing of this act, may be weighed in bulk as aforesaid, and shall be a legal tender at the rate of ninety-four shillings and six pence currency per ounce troy, when offered in sums of not less than fifty pounds currency.

“ VII. That the milled dollar of Spain, the dollar of the United States of America, and of the several states of Peru, Chili, Central America, and the states of South America, and of Mexico, coined respectively before the year one thousand eight hundred and forty-one, and not weighing less than seventeen pennyweights four grains troy, shall pass for five shillings and one penny currency each, and the half-dollar of any of the same nations, states, or governments, and date hereinbefore mentioned, and of the proportionate weight, shall pass for two shillings six pence and a half-penny currency, each, and such dollar or half-dollar shall be a legal tender by

tale to any amount, but the other silver coins of the same nations and date, being subdivisions of such dollars, for proportionate sums and of proportionate weight, shall pass at the rates hereinafter mentioned, to wit, the quarter for one shilling and three pence currency, the eighth for seven pence and one half-penny currency, and the sixteenth for three pence half-penny currency, each, and not otherwise; except that the subdivisions of such dollars, being less than halves thereof, shall be a legal tender by tale to the amount of two pounds ten shillings currency, and no more at any one time, until they shall have lost one twenty-fifth part of such weight respectively, after which they shall not be lawful money.

"VIII. That the five franc silver piece of France, coined before the passing of this act, and weighing not less than sixteen pennyweights, shall be a legal tender in tale to any amount at four shillings and eight pence currency.

"IX. Provided always, that the governor, lieutenant governor, or person administering the government for the time being, may, by proclamation, extend all the provisions of the three sections immediately preceding this section, to any gold or silver coins of the nations, weights, and denominations therein mentioned or referred to, but of later date, which having been assayed at the royal mint shall have been found equal in fineness to those therein mentioned or referred to respectively.

"X. That all silver coins of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, while lawfully current therein, shall pass in this province at the rates following, that is to say: the British crown at six shillings and one penny currency; which said British crown, and all other divisions of the silver coin of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, lawfully current therein, of proportionate weight, shall for proportionate sums pass current, and be a legal tender to the amount of two pounds ten shillings currency, and no more. Provided always, that the holder of the notes of any person or body corporate to the amount of more than two pounds ten shillings, shall not be bound to receive more than that amount in payment of such notes, if presented at one time, although each or any of such notes be for a less sum.

"XI. That the copper penny of the united kingdom aforesaid, or any other which her majesty may cause to be coined, if not less than five-sixths of the weight of such copper penny, shall pass for one penny currency, and the halves and quarters thereof for proportionate sums; and such copper coin shall be a legal tender to the amount of one shilling currency at any one time, and no more.

"A penalty on persons counterfeiting coin, or attempting to pass counterfeit coin, or importing the same."

The banks in the lower province consist of the Montreal Bank, with a capital of £250,000; the (Montreal) City Bank, capital £200,000; the People's Bank, capital paid up £75,000; and Quebec Bank, capital £75,000. Those in the upper province were four in number: The Bank of Upper Canada, with a capital of £200,000, that of Kingston, or the Midland district, with a capital of £100,000, together with the Agricultural and People's Banks, the paid up capital of which was probably £100,000 more. The Bank of British America, established in London in the year 1836, has also branches in various places. Most of the provincial banks are instituted on the American principle of limited liability.

Tariff.—The duties on imported goods levied in Canada are imposed

partly by the authority of the British government, and partly by that of the colonial legislature. The former are called *crown duties*, and the latter *provincial duties*; the first being in sterling money, the latter in currency. In charging the duties, the dollar is received at 4s. 4d., which is 2d. less than the old par, but 2d. more than its real value. The provincial duties have no object besides the increase of revenue, not discriminating in any way between the sources of supply. The crown duties, on the other hand, seem to be framed rather for the purpose of forcing the trade into particular channels, than for simple revenue; and the royal receipts are certainly trifling compared with what they would be were the imports equalized. The provincial duties are, on spirits, 6d. per gallon; Madeira wine, 9d. per gall.; other wines, 6d. per gall.; molasses, 5d. per gall.; coffee, 2d. per lb.; sugar, raw, $\frac{1}{2}$ d., refined, 1d. per lb.; teas, hyson, 6d., bohea, 2d., all others 4d. per lb.; tobacco, manufactured, 3d., leaf, 2d. per lb.; snuff, 4d. per lb.; salt, 4d. per minot, which is drawn back if reshipped for fisheries; goods, wares, and merchandise not specified, (including nearly all British manufactures,) $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, *ad valorem*. The crown duties are not levied on British produce and manufactures. On foreign wine (except French wine) the crown duty is 10s. per tun in wood from the united kingdom, Malta, and Gibraltar, and £7 per tun, from place of growth; on British plantation rum 6d., and foreign spirits 1s. per gall.; tea and British plantation sugar and coffee are free. On most other articles the 3d and 4th Wm. IV. c. 59, imposes duties of $7\frac{1}{2}$, 15, 20, and 30 per cent; but, as in general they amount to a prohibition, they are seldom levied. The duty of $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent is occasionally paid, but the excess only is levied; so that when the goods are liable to the provincial duty of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, 5 per cent only is payable to the crown.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

[BROUGHT DOWN TO MAY 15.]

IN our last number we gave a brief summary of the leading events of the past year bearing upon commercial affairs. It remains for us now to pursue our original intention of bringing up the events of the current month, with the aspect of affairs, down to the period of our publication. At the date of our last a great degree of gloom hung over the markets generally, arising as well from the state of the foreign relations of the country as from the financial discredit which surrounded the federal and most of the state governments. The receipt of later advices from England, seemed, however, to change the face of affairs, and impart some degree of buoyancy to the markets. The news was of two descriptions, viz:—political and commercial. The important feature of the first was, the intelligence that an English army had been literally destroyed in the east, giving the whole fabric of British power in India so rude a shock as to involve the necessity on the part of the British government of putting forth its whole energies to retrieve its standing. The British government of India is almost entirely based upon opinion or of servile belief, on the part of the millions of poor Indians, in the superiority of the English, and the invincibility of British arms. A defeat, therefore, is of the gravest consequences. The spread of disaffection resulting from it was perceptible simultaneously with the reception of the news by the Indian government. The “Bengal Hurkaru” of Feb. 17, 1842, remarks as follows:—“We have rather unpleasant accounts, in our Secunderabad letters, of serious anticipations entertained there of something more than disaffection among the

sepoys, in consequence of the deprivation of batta." A movement of troops on the 6th had also been delayed in consequence of apprehended disturbances. These facts are indicative of the great weight attached to the state of affairs in India by the home government, which is also manifest in the prompt embarkation of troops for the scene of action. This state of things induced that sudden change in the disposition manifest by Great Britain towards the United States that served promptly to remove all fears of an immediate rupture between the two countries, and relieved our commercial horizon from one of the most threatening clouds that lowered on it. The buoyancy caused by the removal of fears upon that head, was stimulated by the nature of the commercial news, which was, in effect, that the whole policy of the British empire in relation to the restrictive system had undergone a change, and that henceforth the tendency would be to reduce instead of enhancing the imposts upon foreign merchandise. The new tariff proposed large reductions in the duties on all articles of American agricultural produce. This fact was received here as an earnest of a largely increased export trade in those articles; and, added to the improved state of money affairs in London, imparted a stimulus to our stock market which caused prices to undergo a general improvement. The following is a table of rates at different dates.

PRICES OF LEADING STATE STOCKS IN THE NEW YORK MARKET.

Stock.	Rate of Interest.	Redeemable.	1841.	1842.			
			August 30.	March 1.	April 15.	May 1.	May 15.
United States,.....	5½	1844	100 a 100½	96 a 97	90 a 95	93 a 97	94 a 96
" "	6	1844	97 a 99	95 a 97	96 a 97	98 a 99
New York,.....	6	1860	100 a 100½	79 a 80	82 a 84	90 a 93	90 a 91
" "	5½	1861	91 a 92	71 a 73	77 a 80	83 a 85	83 a 84
" "	5	1855	86 a 87	68 a 72	75 a 77	82 a 83	81 a 82½
Pennsylvania,.....	5*	79 a 80	44 a 48	31 a 33	48 a 50	43 a 45
Ohio,.....	6	1856-60	94 a 95	67 a 68	50 a 55	70 a 71	71 a 72
Kentucky,.....	6	1860	84 a 85	67 a 68	68 a 70	81 a 82	78 a 79
Alabama,.....	5	1865	50 a 55	35 a 40	a 50	40 a 50
Arkansas,.....	6*	25 years.	59 a 63	35 a 45	a 30	25 a 27.
Indiana,.....	5*	1861	55 a 55½	19 a 20	15 a 17	19 a 21	19 a 20
Illinois,.....	6*	1870	55 a 55½	18 a 19	15 a 16	18 a 20	17 a 17½
Maryland,	6*	40 a 45	40 a 50	43 a 45
Michigan,.....	6*	1860	65 a 70	15 a 30	40 a 50	15 a 20

* The states marked thus have failed.

Notwithstanding this marked improvement in the price of stocks actually upon the market, the new loans of the federal government, and of the state of Ohio, of which we gave the amounts in our last, have been offered upon the market without success. The loan of the state of New York for \$1,000,000, at seven per cent, was advertised some weeks without success, but was finally taken by different capitalists, and a portion by brokers on foreign account. The city seven per cent was also taken by a great number of individuals. Towards the close the demand for the stock seemed to increase, and it is now supposed that the state government will get the remainder at six per cent. The city seven per cent stock is at one per cent premium in the market, and three per cent premium is demanded for that of the state. For the Ohio loan no bids were made. When the United States loan was put upon the market, rumors were industriously circulated that foreign agents were here, prepared to give par for it; these were put afloat, no doubt, to induce confidence and promote offers, but without success. When the time elapsed for the receipt of proposals, it did not appear that any bids had been received. In point of profit and undoubted security, the seven per cent stock of the state of New York

unquestionably offered an investment every way superior to the six per cent stock of the federal government. Viewed therefore as a simple matter of dollars and cents, it is not surprising that the latter remained untouched while the former was to be had. Why that was so tardily taken is, however, not so readily explained. It grows out of the fact that little or no foreign capital comes now to this country for investment, and principally for the reason that abroad the credit of each and all the state governments stands nearly upon the same footing. Foreigners do not readily make those nice distinctions between different members of the same confederacy which are so easily determined on this side. Hence it is that when confidence is so far acquired on their part as to make investments at all, they make them in those stocks which, being the lowest, offer the best chance of profit in the event of ultimate payment. In this view it was that numerous orders were received by the packet of April 4, by large houses in Wall-street, to purchase, on foreign account, those stocks which stood the lowest—as Illinois, Ohio, and Pennsylvania. These purchases it was that caused the rise in prices manifest in the above table. They were made on account of parties who could not be brought to believe that the doctrine of repudiation could ever be seriously entertained, and who supposed that the agitation of the subject grew out of panic caused by repeated failures, and, more particularly, war apprehensions. They therefore argued that as soon as the latter were removed, a reaction would take place. If it could be ascertained to a certainty that the dividends of the delinquent states would be resumed, say ten years hence, the stock would be worth much more than their present rates. For instance, the Indiana five per cent stock, redeemable in 1861, are selling at 20; if it were certain that the interest would recommence at the end of ten years, and then continue to the redemption of the principal, it would be the same as an annuity in reversion at ten years, which would be worth about twenty-two per cent, with a bonus at the end of nineteen years equal to an annuity of two and a half per cent, making the present value of the bond, under these considerations, 32.726 per cent. There was another operating cause upon the market, both to create speculation in the cheap stocks and to prevent investments in the new stocks. It was the knowledge that many members of eminent foreign houses, large holders of the delinquent bonds, had come to this country to carry out a plan which was commenced at the extra session last year, viz :—to procure an assumption of the state debts on the part of the federal government, or some guaranty for their ultimate payment, based upon the public land revenues. There seemed to be a determination to countenance the negotiation of no new loans until the old ones were provided for. The necessities of the federal government would be, it was supposed, a strong inducement for it to accede to these proposals. Hence the indisposition of the foreign houses or any of their correspondents on this side, to make bids for the loan, pending this negotiation. In our own market the surplus capital is exceedingly small. There probably has been in the aggregate rather a loss than an accumulation of capital during the past few years. A very large proportion of the capital that formerly existed, and was invested in stocks, (bank, state, and corporate,) has been annihilated. The accumulations from dividends have been severely curtailed, and all property is so depressed, that it would be difficult to realize for the purpose of changing the investment. As a solitary instance, we may mention \$10,000,000 of the stock of the late national bank, held in this country. This sum was the accumulation of the industry and hard savings of 3,133 individuals in different parts of the United States. If that bank was now in good credit, these persons might change the investment for that of state stock; but that large sum has ceased to exist, and with it has gone at least \$100,000,000 of other capital. The ability to realize from real estate and other property is very small, and the amount of actual cash in the hands of capitalists, available for investments in stocks, must be exceedingly circums-

scribed. These, we think, are some of the practical causes that have operated to create a rise in existing stocks, and at the same time to prevent the negotiation of the new ones.

The movement in the treasury notes issued by the federal government indicates how small the demand for government six per cent securities is at present. The following is a table of the amount outstanding at the date of the last return, as compared with former returns :—

UNITED STATES TREASURY NOTES OUTSTANDING.

	Jan. 1.	March 1.	May 1.
Total outstanding old issues,.....	1,319,663	703,695	543,852
Issues under act of February 15, 1841,.....	6,298,256	7,527,062	7,527,062
Redeemed of that issue,.....	777,197	2,038,519	4,451,601
	5,521,059	—	—
Issues of January, 1842,.....	—	2,377,118	5,641,737
Redeemed of that issue,	—	30,211	1,826,322
GRAND TOTAL outstanding,.....	6,840,723	8,539,115	7,434,729

In the sixty days commencing March 1, and ending May 1, 1842, it appears there were received for government dues and redeemed, \$4,369,006 treasury notes; and in the same time \$3,264,619 new notes were issued by the department, making a decrease of \$1,104,387 in the amount outstanding. One feature is, however, remarkable in the table. It is the rapidity with which the notes issued return upon the treasury, although bearing six per cent interest. As, for instance, on the 1st of March, there had been but \$2,377,118 of the new notes issued, and but \$30,000 of them redeemed. In the succeeding 60 days, \$3,300,000 were issued, and \$2,000,000 came immediately back, remaining out nearly 30 days, on an average. This fact indicates that there is no demand whatever for a government six per cent security, although not only the customs are pledged for redemption, but they are receivable for all public dues. It would appear that they are paid out to contractors, and by them sold to the government debtors, who immediately pay them into the treasury. The inference is, that were it not for the demand created for this purpose, the discount would be very heavy upon these securities. This fact, we think, more than any thing, tests the ability of the public generally to hold stock that there is any chance of disposing of at or near the par value.

The rates of domestic bills (see next page) evidence the fact that a strict regard to prompt payments is the true regulator of exchanges. In foreign bills a brisk business has been done for the last two packets, and rates of sterling bills have improved. The rates follow :—

PRICES OF FOREIGN BILLS IN NEW YORK,
AT DIFFERENT PERIODS IN THE YEAR 1842.

Places.	February.	March.	April.	May 1.	May 15.
London,.....	8 a 8½	7½ a 8½	5½ a 7½	6 a 7½	8 a 8½
France,.....	5 27½ a 5 28½	5 27½ a 5 28½	5 37½ a 5 40	5 35 a 5 37	5 32 a 5 33
Amsterdam, ..	39½ a 40	39½ a 40	39 a 39½	38 a 39	39½ a 39½
Hamburg,....	35½ a 35½	35½ a 35½	35 a 35½	34½ a 35	35 a 35½
Bremen,.....	76½ a 77	76½ a 77	75½ a 76	75½ a 75½	76 a 76½

The importations of goods into the port of New York have been exceedingly small this spring. The packets have but very small freights. This is a very favorable circumstance in many points of view. It prevents apprehension of any undue demand for coin from abroad, and gives opportunity for the large stock on hand to work off to advantage. For the government, however, it is untoward, inasmuch as it adds to its difficulties, already great, arising from a diminished revenue. The receipts consist almost

altogether of treasury notes, which being at a depreciation of $\frac{1}{4}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$, form a good medium of payment.

The progress of resumption on the part of the suspended banks of the south and west has been quite as rapid as we intimated in our last. The banks of Maryland, and those of North Carolina, have resumed in full; and preparations are on foot in New Orleans to follow. Kentucky and Indiana will probably resume in June; and the Bank of Illinois at Shawneetown, (the only one now in that state,) will return to specie payments at the same time. Virginia, Tennessee, Alabama, Arkansas, and Florida will then remain alone in their profligate suspension—disgracing themselves—oppressing the people—and injuring the commercial reputation of the whole country. The improvement in internal exchanges has kept pace with the progress of specie payments. The following are the rates of exchange at different dates:—

RATES OF DOMESTIC BILLS AT NEW YORK,

AT DIFFERENT PERIODS IN THE YEAR 1842.

Places.	February.	March.	April.	May 1.	May 15.
Boston,.....	$\frac{1}{4}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$
Philadelphia,.....	7 a $8\frac{1}{2}$	a 4	par a $\frac{1}{2}$	par a $\frac{1}{2}$ dis	par a $\frac{1}{2}$
Baltimore,.....	2 a 3	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$	" a $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$
Richmond,.....	9 a $12\frac{1}{2}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$ a $8\frac{1}{2}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$ a $8\frac{1}{2}$	$7\frac{1}{2}$ a $7\frac{1}{2}$	$7\frac{1}{2}$ a $7\frac{1}{2}$
North Carolina,.....	$5\frac{1}{2}$ a $5\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$ a 5	$5\frac{1}{2}$ a $5\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{2}$ a $5\frac{1}{2}$	3 a $3\frac{1}{2}$
Savannah,.....	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a 3	2 a $2\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a $2\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$ a $2\frac{1}{2}$	a 2
Charleston,.....	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a 2	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$ a $1\frac{1}{2}$
Mobile,.....	$12\frac{1}{2}$ a 13	28 a 30	23 a 24	19 a 20	15 a 16
New Orleans,.....	$6\frac{1}{2}$ a 7	6 a $6\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{1}{2}$ a 7	$6\frac{1}{2}$ a 7	a $6\frac{1}{2}$
Louisville,.....	$9\frac{1}{2}$ a 10	$7\frac{1}{2}$ a 8	a 5	5 a 6	4 a 5
Nashville,.....	14 a $14\frac{1}{2}$	17 a 18	20 a 22	17 a 18	17 a 18
St. Louis,.....	13 a 14	18 a 20	23 a 25	6 a	6 a
Cincinnati,.....	15 a 16	11 a 12	6 a 7	8 a 10	8 a 9
Indiana,.....	16 a 17	12 a 13	a 12	a 10	a 16
Illinois,.....	17 a 18	28 a 31	a 31	a 31

The banks of this city have been easy in their operations. Good business paper, as usual, is in request with them; but the desire to invest creates no disposition to depart from the strict line of commercial banking in the present prospect of affairs. The pressure among certain classes of dealers is very severe, and a vast number of firms have compromised their debts with their creditors. The number of dealers from the country who are in the city is much smaller than usual at this season of the year, and the amount of their purchases bears but a small proportion to those of former years. The country banks discount but little, and the Lewis County Bank, (safety fund,) capital \$100,000, has failed. Produce, however, the great basis of our national prosperity, is very abundant, and comes forward freely, as is manifest by the returns of freights on all our great national thoroughfares. The elements of a large future business are visibly on the increase; but it would be injudicious to expect a very rapid growth in commercial enterprise. The state of affairs in Europe is by no means such as to warrant the belief that a demand for American produce can speedily be engendered to an extent that will raise prices in any great degree. This is more particularly true in regard to the article of cotton, which forms, in amount, two thirds of our exports. The new British tariff, it is true, is calculated hereafter to improve the commercial intercourse between the two countries; but we apprehend much difficulty from its immediate effects, which must be similar to those which have attended the breaking down of the paper system in this country. The gen-

eral principle of Sir Robert Peel's measure seems to be to effect a transition from high to low money prices. It is undoubtedly true that the immense burden of the national debt of England has been sustained the more easily by the operation of high money prices for commodities. When a certain sum of money represents a small quantity of produce or other commodities, it is more easily paid to the government than when it represents a large quantity. Now, under the operation of high duties, the former has been the case. In the progress of events, however, the growth of manufactures on the continent has been such that it has been found impossible longer to maintain a grade of prices higher than those of the continent, and still compete with the manufacturers of Belgium and Saxony in the markets of the world. Hence the distress of the manufacturers of England, and the determination of the minister, by removing the artificial props to prices, to reduce them to the level of those of the continent. This reduction of prices would evidently increase the burden of the debt, because the £30,000,000 which represents the annual interest in money, will, when prices are low, command a much larger quantity of the products of industry than when prices are high. This fact has rendered necessary the tax upon the receivers of that interest. Sir Robert Peel in the course of his remarks estimated the probable reduction, in the value of property, attendant upon the operation of his bill at twenty per cent, which is probably not far from the truth. Now it is not reasonable to suppose, while this reduction is going on, that any improvement in the prices of American produce can be effected, or that any extensive demand will spring up. The great markets for English manufactures throughout the world evince as yet no symptoms of returning animation, and although the prospective low prices of food are favorable to the increased home consumption, yet there is but little probability of an improved demand for labor. In this view, although we may look forward to a regular increase of internal trade at home, we do not apprehend any auxiliary movement from an improvement in foreign trade for the present. The currency of this country has undoubtedly undergone an immense reduction, yet the corresponding low prices of goods and produce render a much less amount of currency necessary. There is nothing in our political horizon at present to warrant the mercantile man in a belief that a speedy return to the national bank policy can be brought about, and therefore that our large internal commerce, growing out of the transmission, sale, and distribution of the immense agricultural products, will turn for many years to come on a strict specie basis, on the principles of short credits, quick returns, and low prices. The business which grows up on this broad foundation must necessarily be safe, and little liable to revulsion; but it offers no prospect of alleviation to those who have suffered by the transition from high paper values to those which stand the severe test of a metallic currency.

The prospect of any immediate improvement in trade, growing out of the intercourse between this country and Great Britain, is at this moment not very promising. The immediate effect of the alteration in the tariff is to cause inactivity in commercial transactions until the operation and influence of the reduction in duties, particularly that on corn, is more clearly known. The last two monthly announcements of the Bank of England reduced the rate of interest from five per cent to four per cent. The object of that measure was undoubtedly to increase the discounts of the bank, which have of late become so small as to threaten a still further reduction in the dividends, more especially as, under the new income-tax, the bank will have to pay a large sum to the government. The reduction of interest did not appear in the April return of the bank to have had the effect of increasing the circulation; on the contrary, it underwent a still further reduction of 1.6 per cent of the aggregate bank circulation of the kingdom, which is now lower than it has been for many years. The following is a table of the currency of Great Britain down to the latest dates:—

BANK CURRENCY OF ENGLAND, FROM JANUARY, 1841, AND THAT OF GREAT BRITAIN, FROM AUGUST, 1841, TO MAY, 1842.

<i>Periods.</i>	<i>Bank of England.</i>	<i>Private Banks.</i>	<i>Joint Stock Banks.</i>	<i>Scotch and Irish B'ks.</i>	<i>Total.</i>	<i>Bullion in Bank.</i>
Feb., '41,	£16,220,000	£6,575,838	£3,798,155	£3,816,000
April,....	16,587,000	6,322,579	3,666,258	4,638,000
June,.....	16,632,000	6,444,395	3,807,055	5,098,000
Sept.....	17,069,000	5,768,136	3,311,941	£8,900,380	£35,049,457	4,803,000
October,..	17,340,000	6,253,964	3,519,384	8,449,858	35,563,199	4,290,000
Novemb..	17,065,000	6,288,723	3,421,135	9,227,725	36,102,583	4,218,000
Decemb..	16,292,000	5,718,211	3,217,812	9,333,648	34,561,671	5,031,000
Jan., '42,	16,293,000	5,478,189	3,042,197	8,791,627	33,605,013	5,629,000
February,.	17,402,000	5,532,324	3,068,901	8,735,996	34,779,421	5,602,000
March,...	16,894,000	5,299,455	2,990,986	8,407,484	33,591,925	6,281,000
April,....	16,674,000	5,289,050	3,047,656	8,003,971	33,014,000	7,006,000

This table presents the fact that the circulation of the Bank of England is nearly at the same point now as in June last, while that of the provincial banks is much less than it has been throughout the year; giving a strong indication of the great depression of business in the manufacturing districts. The currency of England is of such a nature that a small contraction on the part of the Bank of England, whose bills are a legal tender, and therefore form the basis of the issues of the other banks, is felt in a much greater degree than the mere figures indicate. Of the £17,000,000 of those bills in circulation, about £12,000,000 are in the vaults of banks and the tills of bankers. The great business of the country is done through the medium of commercial bills, of which the amount outstanding is estimated by the number of stamps issued at any one time at £125,000,000. These are represented by the bank paper; therefore, if the Bank of England contracts one per cent, or \$170,000, the same ratio will run through the whole circulation, and the actual reduction will be £1,800,000. The contraction of the circulation of the bank since October, 1841, according to the above table, is £866,000; of the country banks, £1,400,000; and of the whole kingdom, £3,088,000, or nearly ten per cent. A corresponding reduction in the commercial bills would be £12,500,000, making the gross reduction in the circulating medium £15,588,000 in the short space of six months. The prospect ahead is rather that of further reduction, in consequence of the approaching period for the imports of corn to take place, than of expansion. We apprehend, therefore, that any improvement in business must grow out of the low prices of goods rather than an increase in the paper currency; more especially as this reduction in the currency of the United States has been fearful in extent, and of a nature rather to create apprehensions of further disasters than any immediate recovery. During the period when the above reduction of £2,000,000 in the currency of England has taken place through the voluntary operation of the issuing banks, the bank paper currency of the United States has been reduced nearly \$25,000,000 by the failure of banks whose aggregate capital amounts to, in round numbers, \$70,000,000. This is a fearful amount, and the causes are yet in action, operating upon the remaining suspended banks; and it must be remembered that there is no prospect of forming new banks to fill the chasm thus created; and there seems to be no alternative but for commerce to conform to the new state of things.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

POPULATION OF THE NEW ENGLAND STATES.

SIXTH DECENNIAL CENSUS.

A Statement showing the aggregate amount of each description of persons in the several states of New England, by counties.

MAINE.

COUNTIES.	FREE WHITE PERSONS.		FREE COLORED PERSONS.		SLAVES.		TOTAL.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
York,.....	26,137	27,835	33	29	54,034
Cumberland,.....	33,144	34,973	266	275	68,658
Oxford,.....	19,400	18,944	5	2	38,351
Lincoln,.....	32,019	31,263	130	105	63,517
Kennebec,.....	27,924	27,700	111	88	55,823
Penobscot,.....	23,749	21,826	76	54	45,705
Waldo,.....	21,335	20,122	29	23	41,509
Hancock,.....	14,628	13,953	12	12	28,605
Washington,.....	14,559	13,708	31	29	28,327
Somerset,.....	17,388	16,501	16	7	33,912
Piscataquis,.....	6,850	6,287	1	13,138
Franklin,.....	10,568	10,215	9	9	20,801
Aroostook,.....	5,288	4,122	1	2	9,413
TOTAL,...	252,989	247,449	720	635	501,793

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—*As above.*

COUNTIES.							
Rockingham,	22,098	23,474	79	120	45,771
Strafford,.....	29,454	31,641	10	22	61,127
Merrimack,.....	17,698	18,449	60	46	36,253
Hillsborough,	20,055	22,343	44	51	1	42,494
Cheshire,.....	13,116	13,273	25	15	26,429
Sullivan,.....	10,135	10,174	16	15	20,340
Grafton,.....	21,446	20,834	12	19	42,311
Coos,.....	5,002	4,844	2	1	9,849
TOTAL,...	139,004	145,032	248	289	1	284,574

MASSACHUSETTS.—*As above.*

COUNTIES.							
Nantucket,.....	4,362	4,071	423	156	9,012
Dukes,.....	1,925	2,013	13	7	3,958
Barnstable,.....	15,905	16,206	218	219	32,548
Bristol,.....	28,898	30,036	626	604	60,164
Plymouth,.....	23,182	23,838	161	192	47,373
Norfolk,.....	25,991	26,989	63	97	53,140
Berkshire,.....	20,464	20,003	654	624	41,745
Franklin,.....	14,203	14,521	52	36	28,812
Hampshire,.....	15,326	15,370	106	95	30,897
Worcester,.....	46,699	48,041	261	312	95,313
Middlesex,.....	50,121	55,997	285	208	106,611
Essex,.....	46,217	48,263	233	274	94,987
Hampden,.....	18,348	18,706	152	160	37,366
Suffolk,.....	49,038	44,297	1,407	1,031	95,773
TOTAL,...	360,679	368,351	4,654	4,015	737,699

POPULATION OF THE NEW ENGLAND STATES.—Continued.

VERMONT.

COUNTIES.	FREE WHITE PERSONS.		FREE COLORED PERSONS.		SLAVES.		TOTAL.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
Chittenden,.....	11,557	11,338	39	43	22,977
Franklin,	12,420	12,053	31	27	24,531
Caledonia,.....	10,941	10,936	3	11	21,981
Grand Isle,.....	1,959	1,924	3,883
Orleans,.....	6,871	6,752	5	6	13,634
Washington,	11,742	11,743	11	10	23,506
Essex,.....	2,121	2,097	6	2	4,226
Orange,	13,882	13,970	10	11	27,873
Windham,.....	13,713	13,695	16	18	27,442
Lamoille,.....	5,351	5,121	3	10,475
Bennington,.....	8,503	8,268	55	46	16,872
Rutland,.....	15,414	15,155	61	69	30,699
Windsor,	20,108	20,112	73	63	40,356
Addison,.....	11,796	11,676	54	57	23,583
TOTAL,...	146,378	144,840	364	366	291,948

RHODE ISLAND.—As above.

COUNTIES.							
Providence,.....	27,389	29,090	681	912	1	58,073
Newport,	7,969	8,324	226	353	2	16,874
Washington,	6,766	7,047	244	267	14,324
Kent,	6,084	6,687	147	163	1	1	13,083
Bristol,.....	3,154	3,077	115	130	6,476
TOTAL,...	51,362	54,225	1,413	1,825	1	4	108,830

CONNECTICUT.—As above.

COUNTIES.							
Hartford,.....	26,560	27,787	584	698	55,629
New Haven,.....	23,062	24,073	674	765	6	2	48,582
New London,...	21,389	21,334	815	925	44,463
Fairfield,.....	23,788	24,792	666	669	1	1	49,917
Windham,.....	13,412	14,069	293	301	1	4	28,080
Litchfield,.....	19,593	19,817	521	516	1	40,448
Middlesex,.....	11,941	12,498	203	236	1	24,879
Tolland,	8,555	9,186	135	104	17,980
TOTAL,...	148,300	153,556	3,881	4,214	8	9	309,978

AGGREGATE OF WHITE MALES AND FEMALES.

Maine, total number of males,.....	252,989	Vermont, tot. number of males,.....	146,378
" " females,.....	247,449	" " females,.....	144,840
New Hampshire,males,.....	139,004	Rhode Island,males,.....	51,362
" " females,.....	145,032	" " females,.....	54,225
Massachusetts,males,.....	360,679	Connecticut,males,.....	148,300
" " females,.....	468,351	" " females,.....	153,556

RECAPITULATION OF THE AGGREGATE POPULATION OF THE NEW ENGLAND STATES.

Maine,	501,793	Vermont,.....	291,948
New Hampshire,.....	284,574	Rhode Island,.....	108,830
Massachusetts,.....	737,699	Connecticut,	309,978
TOTAL AGGREGATE of the New England states,.....			2,934,822

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF BENGAL.

The review of the commerce of Bengal for the last official year is a document of very great importance. The sea duties at Calcutta on imports and exports, amounted to nearly 50 lacks rupees—2½ millions dollars—being an increase of 10 lacks on those of last year. Of the gross sum, 16½ lacks arose from the duty on foreign salt imported into India: and should the plan of bonding this article, which is now under consideration there, be carried out, it is stated that the receipts from this source would increase year by year. The abolition of the transit duties* is shown to have worked well; for the equivalent, (which was a slight duty on articles imported from England that had been previously admitted duty free, or at a very low rate of duty,) had produced an enormous increase in the duties, the amount for the year just closed having been 32½ lacks rupees. And this increase has not been at the expense of commerce, for in the last year of the old system, the imports had amounted to 33,582,436 rs., while for the present period they had amounted to 58,677,671 rs. The entire cessation of the commercial transactions of the East India Company is shown not to have proved injurious to the trade of the presidency. Compare the years 1840–41 with 1835–36 in the following particulars:

Statement of the Imports of Merchandise and Treasure into the presidency of Bengal, for six years; each Company rupee being equal to fifty cents.

IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
Rupees.		Dollars.	Dollars.
1835–36.....33,582,436	equal to	16,791,218.....	30,558,978
1836–37.....37,265,602	"	18,632,801.....	33,538,704
1837–38.....40,699,504	"	20,349,752.....	32,522,979
1838–39.....41,405,790	"	20,702,895.....	32,400,402
1839–40.....50,659,181	"	25,329,590.....	35,203,059
1840–41.....58,677,671	"	29,338,835.....	41,846,649

Among the articles imported from England, it is found that the two articles of yarn and cotton cloths are the most prominent; the increase in the former has been 50 per cent, and in the latter nearly 100 per cent as compared with the years 1836–37. Trade with China, as was most naturally expected, had increased; and to arrive at a correct result, it has been found necessary to combine the returns for China and Singapore, as it was to the latter place that the chief consignments to China were made. From these it appeared that whereas in 1835–36 their value was 239 lacs (nearly 15 millions dollars,) it had fallen in 1840–41 to 139 lacs. Of this deficiency by far the largest item was that of opium, of which the export in the last year was 72 lacs less than in the former.

Notwithstanding this there was, however, a general increase of exports between 1830–41 of 225 lacs. With Pegu commercial relations continued to acquire a gradual, but steady increase; the exports in 1840–41 having risen to nearly 24 lacs. The great increase has been in cotton piece goods. In imports there was a steady increase of superior wines, ales and spirits, an increase in coffee, earthenware, ironmongery, and machinery; but a decrease in books and pamphlets. In exports there was a large decrease in native cotton piece goods. Of silk piece goods the amount was about 44 lacs.

In the exports of sugar there is a progressive and large increase, the quantity for the

* Bell, in his "Review of the Commerce of Bengal for 1834–35," has the following remarks on those unjust restrictions, now abolished with those of the town duties, similar to the *Octrois* of France. "When the transit duties shall have been abolished, an impulse will be given to every sinew of commerce, which will cause us only to wonder how such an execrable system should have been permitted to exist for a day."

last year being 1,784,000 maunds, or about 66,000 tons, while in 1835-36 it was only 368,000 maunds. And this manufacture has grown to its present strength in the short space of six years. Cotton had fallen off largely in this presidency, in consequence of the interrupted trade with China. For the last year the export was 160 maunds, but in 1835-36 it was 440,000 maunds. The export of rum has kept pace with that of sugar; for the last year it was 1,306,700 gallons, while in 1835-36 it was only 49,000 gallons!

The amount of tonnage (which is always a fair index to the prosperity of a trading place) employed in the trade of the port of Calcutta, stood as follows:—

	Tons.		Tons.
1835-36,.....	150,499	1839-40,.....	198,834
1836-37,.....	197,165	1840-41,.....	234,316

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF HAVANA.

Comparative Statement of the Commerce and Navigation of Havana, during the years 1840 and 1841; compiled from the Havana Weekly Reporter, of Jan. 22, 1842.

Imports.	1840.	1841.
Jerked Beef,....North and S. America.....	269,107 qtls.	307,912 qtls.
Do.United States.....	2,616 bbls.	1,202 bbls.
Butter,United States.....	818 qtls.	1,069 qtls.
Do.Holland and Belgium.....	1,173 do.	1,956 do.
Tallow Candles,.....United States.....	8,920 do.	8,548 do.
Sperm do.United States.....	1,309 do.	1,100 do.
Cheese,Holland.....	4,861 do.	6,414 do.
Codfish,.....United States.....	28,217 do.	21,766 do.
Flour,.....United States.....	55,048 bbls.	37,447 bbls.
Do.Spain.....	81,778 do.	120,014 do.
Hams,United States.....	2,113 qtls.	5,396 qtls.
Do.Hanse Towns.....	3,275 do.	1,490 do.
Lard,.....United States.....	36,194 do.	44,907 do.
Sperm and Whale Oil,...United States.....	7,955 do.	13,456 do.
Olive Oil,.....Spain.....	74,307 arrobas	112,273 arrobas
Do.France.....	1,060 doz. bott.	2,025 doz. bot.
Onions,United States.....	721,830 bunches	425,671 bunches
Pork,.....United States.....	821 bbls.	802 bbls.
Do. clear.....United States.....	2,843 qtls.	4,510 qtls.
Potatoes,.....United States.....	19,666 bbls.	21,352 bbls.
Rice,.....United States.....	113,808 qtls.	105,180 qtls.
Soap,.....United States.....	613 do.	392 do.
Do.France.....	1,879 do.	1,517 do.
Do.Spain.....	28,256 do.	11,106 do.
Wine,France.....	2,348 casks	2,677 casks
Do.Spain.....	27,348 pipes	30,174 pipes
Nails,.....United States.....	9,792 qtls.	8,758 qtls.
Do.England.....	3,434 do.	6,113 do.
Do.Holland and Belgium.....	1,879 do.	5,165 do.
Lumber,.....United States.....	22,436 M. feet	21,020 M. feet
Shooks,.....United States.....	65,978 hhds.	57,724 hhds.
Do.United States.....	93,182 boxes	149,256 boxes
Arabias,pieces	5,504	5,716
Britannias,.....do.	5,652	5,850
Canvass,.....do.	1,519	1,636
Creas,.....do.	9,241	6,834
Drill,.....	1,389,159 vs.	1,511,921 vs.
Estopellas,.....pieces	31,058	28,324
Hessians,do.	4,506	2,156
Listadoes,.....do.	27,820	23,974
Osnaburgs,.....vs.	833,191	916,773
Platillas,.....pieces	86,243	90,040
Rouans,.....do.	1,200	2,227
Sheetings,do.	18,370	16,737
Stockings,.....doz.	40,123	36,689

ARRIVAL OF VESSELS AT HAVANA.

Countries.	1840.		1841.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
American,	884	164,880	782	106,512
British,	87	15,520	101	19,604
Spanish,	539	70,123	569	77,655
Dutch,	14	2,082	17	3,025
Belgian,	15	3,204	19	4,449
French,	29	6,080	26	5,790
Hamburg,	21	4,400	23	5,470
Bremen,	31	5,637	31	6,927
Danish,	17	3,035	18	2,545
Others,	16	3,411	26	5,093
TOTAL,.....	1,653	278,432	1,618	277,102

EXPORTS OF SUGAR AND COFFEE FROM THE WHOLE ISLAND OF CUBA.

Ports.	1840.		1841.	
	Sugar.	Coffee.	Sugar.	Coffee.
Havana,.....	446,959 boxes.....	1,278,413½ arr.....	440,144 boxes.....	739,158 arr.
Matanzas, ...	265,584½ “	320,125½ “	272,768 “	111,908½ “
Trinidad,.....	59,772 “	16,820 “	70,999 “	9,722 “
St. Jago,.....	32,175 “	572,312 “	28,218 “	400,132 “
TOTAL,.....	804,090½ “	2,197,771 “	812,192 “	1,260,920½ “

COTTON GOODS EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES TO BRAZIL FOR FIFTEEN YEARS.

Statement of the Value of Cotton Goods exported for the empire of Brazil; sent to the government by L. H. Ferreira d'Aguiar, Consul-General of that Empire in the United States; and politely furnished by that gentleman for publication in the Merchants' Magazine.

Year.	Dollars.	Year.	Dollars.
1826,.....	242,888	1834,.....	234,721
1827,.....	72,496	1835,.....	266,916
1828,.....	114,794	1836,.....	200,994
1829,.....	192,898	1837,.....	304,102
1830,.....	81,332	1838,.....	536,416
1831,.....	66,119	1839,.....	293,932
1832,.....	184,884	1840,.....	509,857
1833,.....	261,640		
TOTAL, in fifteen years,.....		\$3,563,989	

EXPORTS OF BRITISH GUIANA.

The official report of produce during the year 1840 exported from this colony exhibits an increase of more than five per cent, or 2,199 hogsheads, on sugar; thirty-two per cent, or 3,865 casks, on molasses; and one hundred and twelve per cent, or 1,772,000 pounds, on coffee, as compared with 1839; concurrent with an apparent diminution in the quantity of rum, of five per cent, arising from the concentration of the spirit, for want of a sufficient supply of casks, and an actual deficiency of seventy-five per cent on the small quantity of cotton grown in this province. The comparative exports of timber do not appear in the official table. The growth, therefore, of this valuable and rapidly increasing branch of commerce cannot be ascertained. The value of the surplus quantity of produce shipped last year, making a full allowance for the apparent diminution in the quantity of rum, and the real deficiency in cotton, is estimated at £138,936. The nett revenue of the planters in 1840, from data furnished by themselves, amounted to £415,936, or more than ten per cent, after allowing 6 per cent for interest of invested capital, and ten per cent for wear and tear of machinery and dilapidation of buildings. The gross revenue of the planters during the year 1840 considerably exceeded £2,000,000 sterling.

COMMERCE OF KINGSTON, JAMAICA.

IMPORTS FOR 1841 COMPARED WITH THOSE FOR 1840.

Statement of Imports in each year, from the 1st of Jan. to the 31st December, inclusive.

	1841.	1840.		1841.	1840.
Flour,.....bbls.	93,778...	107,264	Butter,.....firkins	17,242...	14,060
Flour,.....half bbls.	2,041...	2,544	Lard,.....firkins	10,033...	7,622
Corn Meal,...punch.	310...	102	Candles,.....boxes	13,507...	17,215
Corn Meal,.....bbls.	16,895...	20,653	Soap,.....boxes	41,949...	43,164
Rice,.....tierces	868...	2,118	Pork,.....bbls.	20,920...	11,429
Rice,.....half tcs.	118...	222	Pork,.....half bbls.	1,488...	2,406
Rice,.....bags	22,291...	28,119	Brandy,.....pipes	3...	52
Codfish,.....hhds.	7,691...	8,709	Brandy,.....hhds.	554...	531
Codfish,.....tierces	3,795...	4,143	Tobacco,.....hhds.	45...	101
Codfish,.....boxes	6,491...	9,756	Lumber, P. P....feet	2,081,000...	882,000
Haddock,.....casks	204...	223	Lumber, W. P....feet	4,953,000...	2,427,000
Mackerel,.....bbls.	10,578...	7,101	Staves, R. O.....	229,000...	669,000
Alewives,.....bbls.	4,569...	3,473	Staves, W. O.....	110,000...	79,000
Herrings,.....bbls.	6,394...	7,485	Wood Hoops,.....	68,000...	138,000
Bread,.....bbls.	7,678...	14,844	Shingles, Cedar,.....	5,546,000...	2,972,000
Bread,.....half bbls.	360...	215	Shingles, Cypress,....	2,741,000...	1,764,000

Statement of the Imports from the 1st to the 5th of January, 1842.

Flour,.....bbls.	500	Lard,.....firkins	537
Rice,.....bags	410	Butter,.....firkins	220
Rice,.....hhds.	210	Pork,.....bbls.	218
Rice,.....tierces	73	Pork,.....half bbls.	150
Codfish,.....boxes	375	Brandy,.....hhds.	20
Mackerel,.....bbls.	365	Shingles, Cedar,.....	20,000
Alewives,.....bbls.	138	Shingles, Cypress,.....	56,000
Herrings,.....bbls.	335	Hoops, Wood,.....	26,000
Lumber, P. P....feet	36,000	Bread,.....bbls.	470
Staves, R. O.....	19,000	Bread,.....half bbls.	130
Candles,.....boxes	500	Tobacco,.....hhds.	4
Soap,.....boxes	102		

EXPORTS OF MILAN, OHIO.

Statement of the Exports of Milan, Ohio, for the year 1841.

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Wheat,.....bush.	216,780 \$216,780 00	Ashes,.....bbls.	448 \$8,960 00
Corn and Rye, "	15,242 7,621 00	Pork,.....bbls.	4,113 28,791 00
Oats,....."	1,528 534 80	Flour,.....bbls.	4,774 23,870 06
Timothy Seed, "	1,268 2,219 00	H. Wines, &c. bbls.	1,057 9,413 00
Flaxseed,....."	1,009 1,348 75	Staves, pipe & hhd.	1,217,034 24,340 00
Beans,....."	317 237 75	Staves, butt,.....	30,000 1,800 00
Clover Seed,..."	1,400 7,000 00	Lumber, Wool, &c.....	2,294 00
Lard, bbls. & kegs	245 2,450 00		
Butter, fir. & bbls.	551 4,132 50		
		TOTAL,.....	\$341,791 80

The arrivals and departures during the year were 152 vessels—agg. tonnage, 18,240 tons.

TRADE OF ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI.

We are indebted to Charles C. Whittlesey, Esq., of St. Louis, for the report of the harbor-master of St. Louis, showing the arrivals of steamboats, with their tonnage; and the receipts of wood, lumber, shingles, and staves, during the year 1841:—

Number of arrivals of steamboats,.....	1,928
Tonnage,	262,681
Average tonnage, about.....	136
Cords of wood received at wood landing,.....	24,596
" " " below the creek,.....	2,000
Feet of Lumber,.....	9,550,328
Shingles,.....	8,512,710
Staves,	382,150

U. S. EXPORTS OF COTTON, TOBACCO, AND RICE.

The following table, derived from Mr. Calhoun's speech of March 16, 1842, exhibits the value of the three great southern staples, cotton, tobacco, and rice, exported in each year from 1820 to 1840, a period of twenty-one years.

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF SOUTH CAROLINA, FROM 1819 TO 1841.			
1820,	28,530,538	1831,	\$6,528,605
1821,	6,857,515	1832,	7,685,833
1822,	7,136,366	1833,	8,337,513
1823,	6,671,998	1834,	11,119,565
1824,	7,833,713	1835,	11,224,298
1825,	10,876,475	1836,	13,482,757
1826,	7,468,966	1837,	11,138,992
1827,	8,189,498	1838,	11,017,391
1828,	6,508,570	1839,	10,318,822
1829,	8,134,676	1840,	10,036,769
1830,	7,580,821		
Total,			\$186,849,679

STATISTICAL VIEW OF THE COURSE OF THE FOREIGN TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

A correspondent of the Boston Morning Post has prepared some interesting statistical views of the course of our foreign trade. It is very generally supposed that our imports from Great Britain and her possessions exceed our exports to them by several millions of dollars annually. Such was the supposition of the writer of the article in the Post until recently; when, in comparing the exports to *England* alone with the imports from thence for the year 1840, he found the excess of exports was about *twenty-four millions of dollars*.

"In order to show the course of trade for 1840, I have prepared table A, from which it appears—1st, that the principal countries from which we imported more than we exported to them, were Spain, Cuba, and other Spanish possessions, China, and Brazil; 2d, that the principal countries to which we exported more than we imported from them, were Great Britain and her colonies, Netherlands, Belgium, Texas, and Chili. To this table is added a column showing the value of free articles imported, and another column showing the principal articles, with the amount thereof in round numbers, imported from each country free of duty. It will be seen that one half of the excess of imports from Cuba and other Spanish colonies consisted of coffee, which was duty free; that three quarters of the excess of imports from Spain consisted of fruits, more than half of them raisins, which will sell in no other market, and the duty on which, if imposed here, must come out of the Spanish grower. Nearly all the excess from China consisted of tea, while from Brazil we imported coffee to an amount nearly double the excess of our imports from that country.

"In order to ascertain whether this was the usual course of our trade, I prepared two other tables, B and C, to show the state of our trade for the three last years of which we have official accounts from the treasury. From these it appears that (taking the aggre-

gate of the years 1838, '39, and '40,) France, in addition to Spain, Cuba, China, and Brazil, has sent us more than we export. It also appears that Great Britain and her colonies, Netherlands, Belgium, Texas, and Chili, taking the aggregate of the same three years, have taken more of our exports than we have imported from them. In fact, the average excess of our exports to Great Britain and colonies over our imports from thence, for three years, is \$13,500,000 per annum; to Netherlands and Belgium, over \$2,500,000 per annum; to Texas, over \$1,000,000; and to Chili, \$750,000 per annum.

"After completing these tables, it occurred to me that the fairest test of the course of trade was, to take all the years from 1833 to 1840 inclusive, as in those years the tariff of '32 operated, and the enormous imports of speculating years would be included. I then prepared table D, showing the course of trade from 30th September, 1832, to 30th September, 1840, inclusive—a period of eight years—giving the course of our trade during the whole period when the "compromise act" was in operation so far as we have official accounts, and until our trade began to be affected by the prospect of a change of administration and a change of tariff. From this table, it will be seen that, notwithstanding the enormous imports of '35, '36, and '37, the same countries, viz. Great Britain and colonies, Netherlands, Belgium, and Chili, have taken, during the eight years ending 30th September, 1840, of our *exports* more in amount than we have imported from them, while the excess of *imports* has arisen from our trade with China, Cuba, Spain, and the colonies belonging to Spain, other than Cuba, France, Brazil, Russia, Sweden, Italy, and Hayti, beside that from Mexico and other countries (in South America) from which we get our specie, metals, raw hides and skins, dyewoods and mahogany.

"Now it is plain that the amount of coffee, tea, silks and fruit which are imported is vast. If it should be found, on an impartial investigation, that *our market is a highly important one* for those articles, in consequence of our being large consumers in *proportion to other nations*, would it not be perfectly safe to calculate that any duty on those articles would be in fact paid, (not by consumers, but) by *producers*, who would lower the prices to keep our market, PROVIDED such duty was not so high as to divert the capital, thus employed in producing these articles, to other employments? There cannot be a doubt that this would prove to be the fact.

"Fruit and silks were taxed at the extra session. But the amount of tea and coffee imported is as great as that of silks, silk and worsted goods, worsted stuff goods, and fruit put together, if the imports of 1840 are any criterion. During that year the total imports amounted to a trifle over \$107,000,000, of which \$50,000,000 only were subject to duty, and the balance was free of duty, consisting of the following articles, viz:—

Specie and Bullion,.....	\$8,882,813
Copper,.....	1,582,636
Tin,.....	1,079,293
Coffee,.....	\$8,546,222
Tea,.....	5,417,589
	<hr/>
	13,963,811
Linens, bleached and unbleached,.....	4,179,120
Silk goods, free,.....	\$8,288,958
Worsted stuff,.....	2,387,338
Silk and Worsted Goods,.....	1,729,792
Fruits,.....	1,404,889
	<hr/>
	13,810,977
Raw Hides and Skins,.....	2,756,214
Wool,.....	675,009
Spices,.....	558,937
Sundries,.....	9,707,394

TOTAL value of free articles imported in 1840,.....\$57,196,204

"Mr. Woodbury is in favor of taxing tea and coffee, whenever it shall be necessary to raise the duty to over twenty per cent on the articles subject to that percentage under the compromise act. It would seem that, unless we tax *gold* (to protect the mines at the south) upon the same principle that we tax *iron*, we have nothing of importance to add to our taxable imports but hides and skins in the raw state.

"I should hope that congress would inquire how heavy a tax coffee, silks, tea, and fruit would bear without its coming out of the consumer's pocket. This is an important inquiry as regards *REGULATING our foreign commerce, and supplying a sufficient REVENUE*.

"The first column of the following table shows the excess of our *IMPORTS* from several countries over our *EXPORTS* to those countries, and the excess of *EXPORTS* to other countries

over our IMPORTS from the same, during the year 1840; the second column shows the value of all the articles admitted from each country FREE OF DUTY, during 1840; and the third column shows the *principal free* articles imported from each in 1840:—

TABLE A.

	<i>Excess of Imports in 1840.</i>	<i>Value of Free Articles in 1840.</i>	<i>Principal Articles imported Free of Duty, in 1840; in round numbers.</i>
Spain,	\$1,322,372	\$1,206,798	Specie from Cuba, &c.....\$607,000
Cuba,	3,524,962	3,557,967	Coffee " "2,512,000
Spanish colon's,	1,554,966	411,543	Raisins from Spain, 780,000
			Figs, &c..... 122,000
China,	5,630,863	5,570,131	Teas,.....5,414,500
Brazil,	2,420,722	4,646,185	Coffee,4,006,000
			Hides, 360,000
			Specie,.....3,459,000
Mexico,	1,659,660	4,148,379	Hides, 198,000
			Dyewoods,..... 197,000
Russia,	1,402,946	559,080	Linens, bleached and unbleached, 248,500
Sweden,	667,687	2,482	Sheetings, 106,000
Dutch colonies, ..	525,601	864,830	Coffee, 251,700
			Hides, 201,800
			Pepper, 128,000
Peru,	438,495	433,427	Specie, 146,500
			Coffee, 209,000
Cisplatine Rep...	344,672	475,853	Hides, 289,000
			Specie, 165,500
Colombia,	653,425	1,241,866	Coffee, 649,000
			Hides, 320,600
			Coffee, 848,000
Hayti,	225,610	1,194,008	Mahogany, 168,000
			Dyewoods, 113,600
Portugal & cols.	271,638	53,750	Hides, 21,700
Excess of Imp. \$20,643,619			Specie and Bullion,2,262,500
	<i>Excess of Exports in 1840.</i>		Linens, bleached and unbleached,3,493,500
Gr't. Britain } \$31,242,773	14,282,027		Hides and Skins,1,643,500
& colonies, }			Silk Goods,1,345,500
			Worsted Goods,1,338,000
			Silk and Worsted Goods, 341,500
			Tin, 959,000
			Sheathing Copper, 411,000
			Copper, 99,700
			Ticking, Osnaburgs, and Burlaps, 145,000
			Sheetings, 153,800
Netherlands,	2,781,556	511,672	Coffee, 215,000
			Nutmegs, 102,000
Belgium,	2,045,788	81,553	Tin, &c..... 48,600
			Specie,1,121,000
			Silk Goods,6,680,000
			Silk and Worsted Goods,1,339,000
France,	4,268,678	11,594,376	Worsted Goods, 906,000
			Furs, 289,000
			Linens, bleached and unbleached, 255,000
			Fruits, 129,000
			Linens, bleached and unbleached, 257,500
Hanse Towns, ..	1,676,966	924,493	Worsted Goods, 132,600
			Silk and Worsted Goods, 190,000
			Specie, 480,500
Chili,	1,111,970	1,605,391	Pig Copper, 793,080
			Hides, 253,000
			Specie, 55,000
Texas,	915,424	75,338	Hides, 11,500

TABLE A.—Continued.

	<i>Excess of Exports in 1840.</i>	<i>Value of Free Articles in 1840.</i>	<i>Principal Articles imported Free of Duty, in 1840; in round numbers.</i>
Mediterranean, ...	703,709	1,480,047	{ Wool, 434,500 Rags, 303,600 Fruit, 154,000
Italy,	316,985	828,070	{ Rags, 236,000 Silk Goods, 106,500 Specie, 420,000
Other countries, ..	524,197	1,446,938	{ Hides and Skins, 370,000 Spices, 84,000

Excess of Exp. \$45,588,046 \$57,196,204

"The following tables show the balance of trade between the United States and foreign countries for the years 1838, '39, and 1840.

TABLE B.

"The EXPORTS from the United States to the following countries exceed the IMPORTS FROM those countries by the amount set against them, viz:—

	<i>Ex. of Exports.</i>
Great Britain,	\$28,858,219
British colonies,	10,748,407
Netherlands,	4,378,178
Belgium,	3,562,920
Texas,	3,216,652
Chili,	2,148,051
Central America,	140,728
Mediterranean,	431,830
French colonies,	323,611
Denmark,	234,567
Prussia,	107,880
Swedish West Indies,	168,131
South America, generally,	148,398
Asia, generally,	489,345
Africa, generally,	994,513
West Indies, generally,	760,892
South Seas,	75,725

Tot. Agg. of Excess as above, \$56,788,047

TABLE C.

"The IMPORTS into the United States from the following countries exceed the EXPORTS TO those countries by the amounts set against them, viz:—

	<i>Ex. of Imports.</i>
Spain,	\$3,319,623
Cuba,	15,527,428
Spanish colonies,	7,485,203
France,	12,129,975
China,	11,025,705
Brazil and Mexico,	9,646,289
Russia,	3,407,631
Colombia,	2,577,366
Sweden,	1,938,151
Dutch colonies,	1,106,236
Portugal and colonies,	1,701,534
Cisplatine Republic,	1,019,086
Argentine Republic and Peru, ..	2,058,927
Italy,	911,515
Hayti,	846,547
Hanse Towns,	715,410
Danish West Indies,	458,605
Uncertain,	107,870

Tot. Agg. of Excess as above, \$75,983,101

TABLE D.

"Aggregate excess of imports from, over exports to, the following countries, from 1833 to 1840, inclusive:—

China,	\$42,597,265
Cuba,	41,602,194
Spain,	9,209,772
Span. colonies,	20,721,914
France,	33,545,871
Brazil,	20,428,284
Russia,	12,928,315
Mexico,	7,990,893
Swed. & Norw.	6,335,670
Colombia, &c.,	6,318,445
On the Mediter.	5,124,099
Peru,	4,396,776
Argent. Repub.	3,555,004
Hayti,	3,284,006
Dutch colonies,	604,177
All oth. places,	5,246,876

Tot. agg. excess of imports from the above, for the 8 yrs. ending Sept. 30, 1840 } \$223,889,561

Agg. excess of exports from the following, in same time }
 Gt. Brit. & cols. \$14,129,819
 Netherlands, ... 11,838,141
 Belgium, 8,473,850
 Chili, 3,425,659
 Hanse Towns, 220,681
 Texas ('37 to '40) 4,200,096
 Tot. agg. excess of exports from the above places—8 years—'33 to '40, } \$42,288,246

Excess of imports (paid for by remittances of state stocks, earnings of freight, and by bankruptcies of individuals and of the U. S. Bank) over exports, from 1833 to 1840, } \$181,601,315

Tot. imports, '33 to '40, \$1,105,455,692

Tot. exports, '33 to '40, 923,854,377

Excess of Imports, as above, \$181,601,315

Average annual excess of imports from 1833 to '40 } \$22,700,164

COTTON GROWN IN THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1819 TO 1840.

Statement showing the Quantity, Price, and Value of the Cotton grown in the United States, from 1819 to 1840.

Years.	Millions of Pounds.	Price per Pound.	Value.	Increase.
1820	160	17 cents.	\$27,200,000	
1821	180	16 "	28,800,000	
1822	210	16½ "	34,650,000	
1823	185	11 "	20,350,000	
1824	215	15 "	32,250,000	
1825	255	21 "	53,550,000	
1826	350	11 "	38,500,000	
TOTAL, 7 yrs.	1,555	Av. 15½ cents.	\$234,675,000	
1827	270	9½ "	27,700,000	
1828	325	10½ "	40,625,000	
1829	365	10 "	36,500,000	
1830	350	10 "	35,000,000	
1831	385	9½ "	35,612,500	
1832	390	10 "	39,000,000	
1833	445	11 "	48,950,000	
TOTAL, 7 yrs.	2,530	Av. 10 cents	\$263,387,500	\$28,712,500
1834	460	13 "	59,800,000	
1835	416	16½ "	68,640,000	
1836	445	15½ "	67,862,500	
1837	485	15½ "	73,962,500	
1838	525	10½ "	53,812,500	
1839	566	14 "	79,240,000	
1840	880	9½ "	83,600,000	
TOTAL, 7 yrs.	3,777	Av. 13½ cents.	\$487,117,500	\$223,730,000

COMPARATIVE VARIATIONS IN PRICES OF COTTON AT LIVERPOOL, FOR 1840 AND 1841.

Uplands. 1841.		1840.	Uplands. 1841.		1840.
January	8,.....5½ a 7	5½ a 7½	July	9,.....5½ a 7½	4½ a 6½
"	15,.....6 a 7½	5½ a do.	"	16,.....5½ a do.	do. a do.
"	22,.....6 a 7½	5½ a 7	"	23,.....do. a do.	do. a do.
"	29,.....do. a do.	5½ a 6½	"	30,.....5½ a do.	do. a do.
February	5,.....do. a do.	5½ a do.	August	6,.....5 a do.	do. a do.
"	12,.....6½ a 7½	5½ a do.	"	13,.....do. a do.	5 a 6½
"	19,.....do. a do.	do. a do.	"	20,.....5½ a do.	4½ a do.
"	26,.....6 a 7½	5½ a do.	"	27,.....5½ a do.	do. a 6½
March	5,.....do. a do.	5½ a do.	Septe'ber	3,.....5½ a do.	do. a do.
"	12,.....6½ a 7½	5½ a do.	"	10,.....5 a 7½	4½ a 6½
"	19,.....do. a do.	5½ a do.	"	17,.....do. a do.	do. a do.
"	26,.....6½ a do.	5½ a do.	"	24,.....do. a 7	5 a do.
April	2,.....6 a do.	5½ a do.	October	1,.....do. a do.	do. a do.
"	9,.....6 a 7½	5½ a do.	"	8,.....do. a do.	do. a do.
"	16,.....do. a do.	5 a do.	"	15,.....do. a do.	do. a do.
"	23,.....5½ a 7½	5½ a 7	"	22,.....do. a do.	do. a do.
"	30,.....5½ a do.	5½ a do.	"	29,.....do. a do.	do. a do.
May	7,.....do. a do.	do. a do.	Nove'ber	5,.....4½ a 6½	do. a do.
"	14,.....do. a do.	5 a do.	"	12,.....do. a do.	do. a do.
"	21,.....5½ a 7½	4½ a do.	"	19,.....do. a do.	do. a 6½
"	28,.....5½ a do.	4½ a 6½	"	26,.....4½ a 7	do. a do.
June	4,.....5½ a do.	do. a do.	Dece'ber	3,.....4½ a 6½	5½ a do.
"	11,.....5½ a do.	do. a do.	"	10,.....do. a do.	do. a do.
"	18,.....5½ a do.	do. a do.	"	17,.....4½ a do.	do. a do.
"	25,.....do. a do.	do. a 6½	"	24,.....do. a do.	5½ a 6½
July	2,.....5½ a do.	5 a 6½	"	31,.....do. a do.	do. a do.

TRADE OF SANDUSKY, OHIO.

The following statement of the principal articles shipped at Sandusky, the northern termination of the Mad River & Lake Erie Railroad, drawn from the books of the shipping merchants of that place, is furnished for publication in the Merchants' Magazine by James D. Whitney, Esq., of Sandusky. It may, therefore, be relied on as correct, and exhibits a most flattering condition of the business of that town, as well as of the increase of western commerce :—

STATEMENT OF SHIPMENTS OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF PRODUCE FROM SANDUSKY, 1841.

462,766 bushels Wheat, value....	\$462,766	201 barrels Tallow,.....	3,758
30,019 " Corn,.....	12,007	183 " Dried Fruit,.....	740
22,457 barrels Flour,.....	112,285	3,879 kegs Butter,.....	26,375
10,485 " Pork,.....	73,395	164 packs Furs,.....	23,120
3,249 " Beef,.....	19,494	14,835 pounds Wool,.....	4,450
2,223 " Whiskey, &c... ..	17,784	8,454 " Feathers,.....	3,381
657 " Lard,.....	6,227	146,886 " Hides,.....	8,753
734 kegs Lard,.....	2,569	17,735 " Paper Rags,.....	709
785 casks Ashes,.....	20,000	105,559 " Hams,.....	5,277
4,512 casks and barrels Seed,..	47,376	911 barrels Plaster, ground,..	1,366
509 barrels Beans,.....	1,200		
TOTAL value,.....			\$853,032

Besides these shipments, there were 132½ tons of sundries, of which no valuation was computed. Of imports, there were, in gross, 3,812 tons merchandise taken in store, intended for the traders of Sandusky, and for a wide extent of country interior. Also, 19,337 barrels of salt, for consumption in the packing establishments in the town, and for the supply of the country; besides lumber to a large amount, the quantity not known. This statement relates only to the business proper of Sandusky. There are upon Sandusky Bay and its tributaries three other points of business importance, to wit: Venice, situated three miles above Sandusky, at which the manufacturing of flour is largely carried on; Portage, situated twelve miles up the bay, near extensive beds of gypsum, which is manufactured by steam power, and annually shipped to the extent of several thousand barrels; and Lower Sandusky, situated at the head of navigation on the Sandusky river, thirty-six miles from the mouth of the bay. This latter town is the seat of justice of Sandusky county, enjoying a considerable hydraulic power, and trading with an extensive and growing portion of the country.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF HONOLULU.

Our intercourse with the Hawaiian Islands, principally through our whale ships, will render the annexed statistics, from late Sandwich Islands papers, interesting to a portion of our commercial readers. They seem to have been prepared with considerable care and apparent accuracy, and afford a very good idea of the resources, trade, and condition of Oahu.

Imports into the Port of Honolulu, from August 18, 1840, to August 17, 1841.

United States—Blue, bleached and unbleached Cotton Cloths, Prints, Handkerchiefs, Crockery and Glassware, Hardware, Paints and Oil, Sheathing Copper, Cordage, Canvass, Flour, Bread, Wines and Spirits, Iron, Sugar-Mills, Lumber, &c. &c.....	\$193,000
England—Same as above,.....	92,000
Chili—Same as above,.....	39,000
New South Wales—Same as above,.....	10,000
Society Islands—Pearl Shells and English Goods,.....	6,500
California—Hides, Tallow, Sea-Otter Skins, Soap, Cedar Lumber, &c.....	42,700
Mexico—Specie,.....	20,000
Columbia River—Lumber, Spars, and Salmon,.....	12,000
China—Teas, Silks, Nankeens, Blue Cottons, Camphor, Trunks, Nankeen Clothing; also, Coffee, Rice, and Cigars, from Manilla,.....	40,000
TOTAL, imports,	\$455,200

Remarks—In the imports is included such merchandise only as has been actually landed. No account has been made of that which has been brought to Honolulu destined for other markets, and of course not landed in that place. The amount of imports this year greatly exceeds that of any former year. Less goods however have exchanged hands, owing to the prohibition of the coasting trade of California by foreign vessels; and the foreign trade to Norfolk Sound having ceased in consequence of the Russians obtaining their supplies direct from Europe.

EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF HONOLULU, FROM AUGUST 18, 1840, TO AUGUST 17, 1841.

Produce of the Sandwich Islands.

	<i>Value.</i>
Bullock Hides, 15,000 at \$2 each,	\$30,000
Goat Skins, 18,000 at 23 cents each,	4,140
Arrow Root, 83,000 pounds at 4 cents,	3,320
Brown Sugar, 60,000 pounds at 5 cents,	3,000
Molasses and Syrup, 6000 gallons at 23 cents,	1,380
Salt, 1800 barrels at \$1 25,	2,250
Sperm Oil, vessels fitted from Honolulu, 440 barrels at \$22,	9,900
Sundries, viz: Pulu Hapuu, (a moss,) Mustard Seed, Leaf Tobacco, Candle-nut Oil, &c.,	2,090
Salt and Fresh Provisions, Vegetables, &c., sold to men-of-war, whaling, and merchant vessels,	69,200

TOTAL, exports,.....\$125,060

Remarks—The crop of sugar and molasses for the year 1841 had not yet been exported. The quantity produced far exceeded that of 1840, and will continue to increase yearly. Owing to the “*kapu*” on killing wild bullock, laid by the king for five years, from 1840, to enable the number to increase, the amount of hides exported this year is small, and will be still less while the “*kapu*” remains in force. Heretofore, from 3000 to 9000 hides have been exported annually. Notwithstanding the facts above stated, it will be seen that the amount of exports exceeds that of any former year. The visit of the United States Exploring Squadron to the islands was very beneficial to so small a trading community; a large amount of money was put into circulation, giving the natives an opportunity to sell a large amount of provisions, &c., and the merchants the means of making profitable remittances to other countries.

SHIPPING OWNED AT HONOLULU.

	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
By citizens of the United States—Bark Don Quixote,	260	\$10,000
Brig Lama,	144	8,500
“ Maryland,	100	6,500
“ Bolivar,	212	5,000
Schooner Hawaii,	37	2,200
“ Pilot,	20	1,200
TOTAL, American,	773	\$33,400
By English subjects—Bark Honolulu,	160	9,000
Brig Clementine,	100	4,000
TOTAL,	1,033	\$46,400

Seven small schooners owned by natives.

ARRIVALS OF FOREIGN VESSELS, IN 1841.

<i>Nation.</i>	<i>Whaling.</i>	<i>Merchant.</i>
United States,	50	14
England,	3	13
France,	0	2
Mexico,	0	1
TOTAL, arrivals,	53	30

U. S. DUTIES, BY THE SEVERAL ACTS OF 1816, 1824, 1828, AND 1832.

A Comparative Statement of the most important Articles bearing Specific Duties, as imposed by the acts of 1816, 1824, 1828, and 1832, and by the bill proposed by the Committee on Manufactures; from Mr. Saltonstall's report of said committee, March 31, 1842.

Articles.	1816.	1824.	1828.	1832.	Proposed bill.
Flannels, book'gs, and baizes, sq. yd.	25 p. c.	25 p. c.	14	16	14
Carpeting, Brussels, &c.....	25 p. c.	50	70	63	50
Carpeting, Venetian, &c.....	25 p. c.	25	40	35	30
Carpeting, floor-cloth, patent,	30 p. c.	30 p. c.	50	43	35
Oil-cloth furniture,.....	15 p. c.	30 p. c.	25	12½	10
Cotton bagging,.....	20 p. c.	3½	5	3½	3
Vinegar,..... gallon	15 p. c.	8	8	8	5
Beer in casks,....	10	15	15	15	30 p. c.
Beer in bottles,.....	15	20	20	20	
Oil, fish, &c.....	—	—	—	—	20
Oil, olive,.....	25	25	25	25	20
Oil, castor,.....	15	40	40	40	37½
Oil, linseed,.....	15	25	25	25	20
Oil, rapeseed,.....	15	25	25	25	20
Sugar, brown,..... pound	3	3	3	2½	2
Sugar, white clayed,.....	4	4	4	3½	2½
Sugar, loaf,.....	12	12	12	12	6
Sugar, candy,.....	12	12	12	12	6
Sugar, lump and oth. refined,	10	10	10	10	6
Sugar, syrup,.....	15 p. c.	15 p. c.	15 p. c.	2½	2
Chocolate,.....	3	4	4	4	4
Cheese,.....	9	9	9	9	7
Tallow candles,.....	3	5	5	5	4
Lard,.....	15 p. c.	3	3	3	2
Beef and Pork,.....	15 p. c.	2	2	2	2
Bacon,.....	15 p. c.	3	3	3	3
Butter,.....	15 p. c.	5	5	5	5
Saltpetre, refined,.....	7½ p. c.	3	3	3	2
Oil of Vitriol,.....	7½	3	3	3	2
Dry Ochre,.....	1	1	1	1	1
Ochre in Oil,.....	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½
Red and White Lead,.....	3	4	5	5	3
Whiting,.....	1	1	1	1	1
Litharge,.....	15 p. c.	15 p. c.	5	5	3
Sugar of Lead,.....	15 p. c.	15 p. c.	5	5	3
Lead, pig, &c.....	1	2	3	3	2½
Lead Pipes,.....	20 p. c.	25 p. c.	5	5	3
Lead, old scrap,.....	15 p. c.	15 p. c.	15 p. c.	2	1½
Cordage, tarred,.....	3	4	4	4	4
Cordage, untarred,.....	4	5	5	5	5
Twine, packthread, &c.....	4	5	5	5	30 p. c.
Corks,.....	15 p. c.	12	12	12	9
Copper Rods and Bolts,.....	4	4	4	4	4
Copper Nails and Spikes,.....	4	4	4	4	4
Wire, cap or bonnet,.....	30 p. c.	30 p. c.	30 p. c.	12	20
Wire, ir. or st., not ab. No. 14,	—	—	6	5	3½
Wire, ir. or st., above No. 14,	—	—	10	9	6
Iron Nails,.....	3	5	5	5	4
Iron Spikes,.....	2	4	4	4	3
Iron Cables and Chains, &c..	20 p. c.	3	3	3	2
Iron Anchors,.....per 112 lbs.	150	2	2	2	2
Iron Anvils,..... pound	20 p. c.	2	2	2	2
Iron, smiths' hammers, &c...	20 p. c.	2½	2½	2½	2
Iron Castings, Vessels, &c...	20 p. c.	1½	1½	1½	1½
Iron, all other,.....	20 p. c.	1	1	1	1

UNITED STATES DUTIES, ETC.—Continued.

Articles.	1816.	1824.	1828.	1832.	Proposed bill.
Iron, r.&b. rods, 3-16 a 8-16 di. pound	20 p. c.	3	3½	3	2½
Iron, nail or spike rods,..... "	20 p. c.	3	3½	3	2½
Iron, sheet or hoop,.....112 lbs.	250	3	3½	3	2½
Iron, band, &c..... pound	20 p. c.	3	3½	3	2
Iron in pigs,..... cwt.	50	62½	50	50	40
Iron, old scrap,..... "	—	—	62½	62½	42½
Iron, bar, rolled,..... "	150	150	185	150	125
Iron, bar, hammered, "	45	90	112	90	85
Hemp,..... "	150	175	300	200	200
Alum,..... "	100	200	250	250	200
Copperas,..... "	100	200	200	200	130
Wheat Flour, "	15 p. c.	50	50	50	50
Salt,..... bushel	20	20	20	10	8
Coal,..... "	5	6	6	6	\$1 60 ton
Wheat,..... "	15 p. c.	25	25	25	25
Oats,..... "	15 p. c.	10	10	10	10
Potatoes,..... "	15 p. c.	10	10	10	10
Paper, folio and quarto post,.. pound	30 p. c.	20	20	20	15
Paper, foolscap, &c..... "	30 p. c.	17	17	17	12½
Paper, print'g, cop'rplate, &c. "	30 p. c.	10	10	10	12½
Paper, sheathing, &c..... "	30 p. c.	3	3	3	3
Paper, all other,..... "	30 p. c.	15	15	15	12½
Books, prior to 1775,..... vol.	—	4	4	4	4 to 1800
Books, other than English,..... "	—	4	4	4	4
Books, Greek and Latin, b'nd. pound	—	15	15	15	15
Books, do. do. unb'nd. "	—	13	13	13	13
Books, all other, bound,..... "	—	30	30	30	30
Books, all other, unbound,.... "	—	26	26	26	26
Apothecaries' vials, under 6 oz. gross	20 p. c.	{ various, from \$1		{ 175	120
Apothecaries' vials, 6 to 16 oz. "	20 p. c.	{ to \$1 75 per gro.		{ 225	170
Demijohns,..... No.	20 p. c.	25	25	25	50
Glass Bottles, to 1 quart,..... gross	144	200	200	200	160
Glass Bottles, over 1 quart,..... "	20 p. c.	250	250	225	200
Playing Cards,..... pack	30	30	30	30	10
Win. Glass, not over 8×10, per hund.	250	300	300	300	240
Win. Glass, over 8×10, & not over { 10×12,.....per 100 sq. feet }	275	350	350	350	237
Win. Glass, over 10×12, " "	275	4 to 500	4 to 500	400	256
Fish, dried or smoked,.....quintal	100	100	100	100	100
Fish, salmon,.....bbl.	200	200	200	200	200
Fish, mackerel,..... "	150	150	150	150	150
Fish, all other,..... "	100	100	100	100	100
Shoes and slippers, silk,.....pair	30	30	30	30	25
Shoes, prunella,..... "	25	25	25	25	20
Shoes, leather, &c..... "	25	25	25	25	20
Shoes, children's,..... "	15	15	15	15	12
Boots and bootees,..... "	150	150	150	150	125
Wool, over 8 cents,.....pound }	Over 10	30 p. c.	{ 50 p. c.	40 p. c.	23 p. c.
	Under 10	15 p. c.	{ & 4 cts	& 4 cts	& 4 cts
Woollen Yarn,..... "	25	33½	—	50 p. c. & 4 cts	30 p. c. & 4 cts
Merino Shawls,..... per ct.	25	{ 33½ and 45 p. c.		{ 50	40
Cloths and Cassimeres,..... "	25	{ on various min.		{ 50	40
Other woollen manufactures,.. "	25	{ ima.		{ 50	40
Clothes, ready made,..... "	30	30	50	50	50
Glass, cut,..... pound	20 p. c.	{ 30 p. c. & 3 cts	30 p. c. & 3 cts	30 p. c. & 3 cts	
Glass, plain and other,..... "	—	—	—	{ 20 p. c. & 2 cts	

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

POINT CHAUVEAU LIGHT,

ON THE SOUTH-EASTERN EXTREMITY OF THE ILE DE RE.

Hydrographic Office, Admiralty, March 18, 1842.—Navigators are hereby informed that on the 1st of March, 1842, a fixed light was established on Point Chauveau, the south-eastern extremity of Re Island, in lat. 46 deg. 8 min. 2 sec. north, and long. 1 deg 16 min. 17 sec. west of Greenwich. The light is 72 feet above high water of equinoctial springs, and may be seen at the distance of four leagues, and therefore from the entrance of the Pertuis d'Antioche. As this new light must always be in sight whenever the harbor-light of La Rochelle can be seen from seaward, they will be readily distinguished from each other by their appearance and bearings. The mariner is reminded that the harbor-light of La Rochelle is so placed that the Chauveau Rocks and the Lavardin Reef will be avoided by keeping the light open to the southward of the Lanterne Tower, which stands 23 yards to the westward of it. A white stone beacon, 33 feet above high water, has been erected on the Lavardin Reef.—*Communicated by the French government.*

MEROPE SHOAL.—MINDORO STRAIT.

The following is an extract of a letter from Capt. George Blaxland, dated the 5th of May, 1841, received by the *Mumford* :—"As a piece of nautical news or information, which Capt. Ross and his coadjutors in the survey of the China Sea will hardly credit, W.N.W. from the island off the outer edge of Appoo Shoal, ten or twelve miles, lies a rocky patch, with quarter less three fathoms on the shoalest part, with a line of soundings of ten fathoms for some distance, the whole length about one mile; the boats of the *Merope* and two London whalers have been on it several times. How it has never been seen by the numerous ships passing up and down is extraordinary, it lying in the fairway outside Appoo Shoal.—*New Zealand Gazette.*

The foregoing extract from the *Shipping Gazette* is a most important information for seamen using the Strait of Mindoro. Captain Ross's surveys had nothing to do with it whatever, nor had any ships passing up and down the China Sea.—*Ed. Lond. Naut. Mag.*

CAPE GRINEZ LIGHT.

Hydrographic Office, Admiralty, March 18, 1842.—The fixed light established on Cape Grinez in November, 1837, in lat. 50 deg. 52 min. 10 sec. north, and long. 1 deg. 35 min. 9 sec. east, will, on the 1st of July, 1842, be converted into a revolving light, which will re-appear every half minute. The additional flashing light, established in 1838, near the above fixed light, will then discontinue. The new revolving light will be visible eight leagues, and will be distinguished from that of Calais by the difference of their respective intervals, that of Calais being 90 seconds, and that of Grinez only 30 seconds; and further, the bright glares of Calais light are separated by perfect darkness, while in the intervals between those of Grinez, a faint light will be visible to vessels within the distance of four leagues.—*Communicated by the French government.*

LIGHT ON POINT D'ALPRECK.

On the 1st of July, 1842, the fixed light on Point Alpreck, in lat. 50 deg. 41 min. 37 sec. north, and long. 1 deg. 33 min. 54 sec. east, will every two minutes change into flashes of red light, which are to continue for three seconds. This light will not be visible more than four leagues.—*Communicated by the French government.*

SHOALS IN THE STRAITS OF MADURA.

The commission for correcting and improving the sea charts of Netherlands India has published the following observations for the guidance of mariners:—

1. Lieutenant Fschauzier, of the Royal Navy, has discovered a shoal (droogde) in the Straits of Madura, of which the northwesterly point, a white sand hill, is nearly three to four feet above the water, and may perhaps always be visible. The whole shoal he supposes to be about three cables' length in circumference, covered with stones, and quite flat, and so perpendicular that near it no soundings could be taken. The invisible part is situated in lat. 7 deg. 25 min. 30 sec. south, long. 113 deg. 8 min. 34 sec. east of Greenwich; distance about $2\frac{1}{4}$ leagues southwest of Bucks Island (Bokken Eyland.)

2. By the master of the barque Eendragt, Deuling, on the 7th Oct., 1841, several blind rocks were discovered W.b.N. of the Swans Flat (Zwaantjis Droogte,) distance about half a league N. $\frac{1}{2}$ E. from Bucks Island (Bokken Eyland,) on which not quite four fathoms water was found. Near another cluster of rocks, where there appeared to be no more than two or three fathoms water, after sounding he could find no bottom at sixteen and seventeen fathoms water, but trying a heavier lead he ascertained that near those rocks the depth of water was twenty-three feet.

3. By several correct observations it has been proved that the fortress on the east side of Kalemaas, near Sourabaya, is situated in 112 deg. 48 min. 10 sec. east long. of Greenwich, supposing the tide ball at Batavia to be at 116 deg. 52 min. long. of Greenwich.—*London Shipping List.*

KNOBEN LIGHT, OFF ANHOLT.—CATTEGAT.

Elsinore, Feb. 26, 1842.—The General Board of Customs and Trade at Copenhagen have issued an order under date of the 22d instant, according to which the light-vessel hitherto stationed in the "Grounds" off Dragoe, will in the course of the spring be removed to the reef extending in an eastern direction from the island of Anholt and called the Knob, while the floating-light thus withdrawn from the Grounds will be temporarily replaced on and after the 1st March, 1842, by a common galliot-rigged vessel, without painted sides, which will show a red flag on the top of her foremast whenever the light is not burning. The Danish government, besides, have it in contemplation to change the Anholt light from a fixed to a rotary one.

BUOY OF THE BIANCO SHOAL.

Downing-street, March 14, 1842.—Sir—Referring to your letter of the 15th of January last, I am directed by Lord Stanley to acquaint you, for the information of the lords commissioners of the admiralty, that a report has been received from her majesty's lord high commissioner at Corfu, stating that the black buoy which had disappeared from the Cape Bianco Shoal, off the south end of Corfu, was replaced in its berth by persons in the employment of the Ionian sanitary authorities, so far back as the 30th November, 1841. I am, &c., G. W. HOPE.—*Extract from a letter to Sir J. Barrow, etc.*

KENTISH KNOCK LIGHT-VESSEL.

Trinity House, London, March 3, 1842.—Notice is hereby given that on or about the 20th April, 1842, the ordinary ball upon the mast of the light-vessel at the Kentish Knock was surmounted by a second ball, of smaller size, whereby the light-vessel may with certainty be distinguished under all circumstances during the daytime.—J. HERBERT, Sec.

DISCONTINUANCE OF A SEA MARK.—COAST OF HOLLAND.

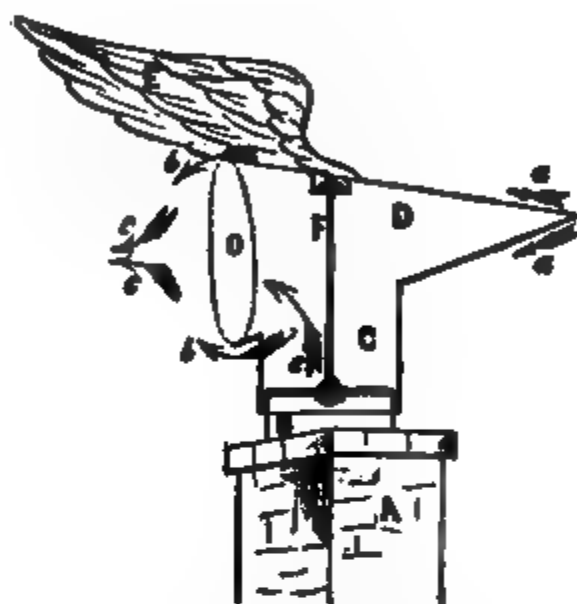
Amsterdam, March 1, 1842.—The director-general of marine has given notice that the grain-mill of Ballum, on the Island Ameland, which at times used to serve as a landmark, has been recently broken down, and therefore this mark is no more to be depended upon.

LIGHTHOUSE AT GIBRALTAR.

Trinity House, London, 6th April, 1841.—The lighthouse which for some time past has been in course of erection at Gibraltar, being now nearly completed, notice is hereby given, that the light therein will be exhibited for the first time on the evening of the 1st of August next, and thenceforth continued every night from sunset to sunrise.

Mariners are to observe, that this lighthouse is situated upon Europa Point, and that a powerful fixed light will be exhibited therein, and will burn at an elevation of 150 feet, or thereabouts, above the level of the sea. By order, J. HAZEN, Secretary.

ESPY'S PATENT CONICAL VENTILATOR.



We are happy to learn that this important invention has at last attracted the attention of our government, and is gaining popular favor throughout the community. The inventor, James P. Espy, Esq., well known in this country and in Europe, as the discoverer of the "law of storms," it appears is reaping a richly-deserved harvest for his genius and persevering enterprise. His apparatus has already been employed for ventilating several of our ships of war, as well as the public buildings at Washington, and answers every desired expectation. It is well adapted to the purpose of ventilating public buildings, ships, kitchens, cellars, cisterns, vats, mines, stables, &c. Also for producing a strong draft in chimneys (and thereby prevent their smoking,) flues to steamboats, locomotives, and a multiplicity of other purposes. It may be described as follows; reference being had to the letters in the above diagram, which represents a vertical section, and a full view of the ventilator attached to a chimney:—

A, denotes a chimney.

B, a sheet-iron pipe, secured upon the top of the chimney.

C, a sheet-iron collar, fitting loosely over the pipe B.

D, a hollow cone, made also of sheet iron, into which the collar C enters.

E, a vane, to keep the cone pointed to the wind.

F, a spindle, on which the apparatus revolves.

The arrows *aa*, *bb*, *cc*, and *e*, indicate the direction of the currents of air. Suppose the wind to blow in the direction of the arrows *aa*, it will pass along the surface of the cone, from its apex to its base, where it will converge as represented by the arrows *bb* and *cc*, and produce a partial vacuum at O at the mouth of the cone, and consequently a strong current of air will rush up the chimney A, in the direction of the arrow *e*.

• THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*A Treatise on the Law and Practice of Bankruptcy, with reference to the General Bankrupt Act*; supported and illustrated by the English and American authorities, and by the principles of Law and Equity, as applicable thereto, with an appendix containing the Rules of Court, a Table of Fees, the forms of proceedings, the Act of Congress, and a Digested Index. By SAMUEL OWEN, Counsellor at Law. 8vo. New York: John S. Voorhies. 1840.

There are few legal subjects so important for the lawyer thoroughly to understand as the one this work is intended to illustrate and explain. The immense amount of cases continually springing up under the bankrupt act, and the numerous questions that must necessarily arise in the judicial construction of its various provisions, render a treatise of the kind before us very valuable at this time. It must be confessed, however, that there are numerous difficulties in the way of the author who boldly attempts the construction of any new law so comprehensive as this. He enters almost wholly upon new ground, without precedent or guide, and it would be remarkable indeed, if, under such circumstances, he did not occasionally present a different view or opinion from that entertained by courts when they come to pass judicially upon the same points. The work before us, however, is written with much care, and the author has been cautious in expressing any decided opinions of his own. Indeed, its chief value consists in its containing a large number of abridged English cases, decided under the bankrupt act of that country, which, in many of its features, resembles our own. It is true that some of its main provisions are essentially different, and yet its construction depends materially upon the same principles. Such being the case, a collection of these cases, well selected, is of the utmost value to the lawyer, and in classing them together, Mr. Owen has evinced considerable research. In addition to these, the work contains the entire bankrupt act, with a clear and comprehensive analysis, together with the rules and forms in bankruptcy adopted by the circuit and district courts of the United States, for the southern district of New York, all of which combine to render it exceedingly useful, and indeed almost indispensable to the practitioner.

- 2.—*Anthon's Latin Grammar. Part 2d.* An introduction to Latin Prose Composition, with a complete course of exercises, illustrative of all the important principles of Latin Syntax. pp. 327.

- 3.—*Anthon's Greek Lessons. Part 2d.* An introduction to Greek Prose Composition, with copious explanatory exercises, in which all the important principles of Greek Syntax are fully elucidated. By CHARLES ANTHON, L. L. D. 12mo. pp. 270. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The above works have been laid upon our table, and we gladly renew our acquaintance with the author. Indeed, we never see one of his classical school-books without wishing that the professor had written when we were school-boys, or that some enterprising men as the Messrs. Harper had presented our books in a guise so attractive. The object of the editor has been "to make the student more fully acquainted, than could be done in an ordinary grammar, with all the principles of the Greek and Latin Syntax." He has pursued, in our opinion, the best, if not the only method, calculated to effect his object, by separating the theory from the practice, by first stating the rules and then following them up with explanatory examples, thus impressing the principle in a clear and distinct manner on the mind of the pupil. We know of no author who has carried out this principle as fully as Professor Anthon. In selecting the exercises the author has "made free use of all the materials within his reach," and has succeeded in combining the "utile cum dulce," in a happy manner; every passage not only admits of conversion into pure classic language, but contains maxims of sound morality, practical wisdom, or some fact connected with Greek or Roman history.

In editing these works Professor Anthon has added to the many obligations already conferred; and has presented to the instructor a convenient help "to teach the young idea how to shoot," and to the scholar an introduction to Greek and Latin composition which he will find pleasant to cultivate.

- 4.—*Rudiments of American Law and Practice, on the plan of Blackstone ; prepared for the use of Students at Law, and adapted to Schools and Colleges.* By THOMAS W. CLARK, Counsellor at Law. 8vo. pp. 408. New York : Gould, Banks, & Co. 1842.

The volume before us furnishes, within a moderate compass, and in clear and succinct language, the first principles of legal science, in a manner adapted to the comprehension of every citizen not willing to remain in utter ignorance of the laws and institutions of his country. Mr. Clark has taken Blackstone's Commentaries, both as the ground-work and model of these rudiments ; probably the best method, by reason of its analytical character and logical arrangement, in which elementary knowledge can be conveyed. In addition to Blackstone, Mr C. has drawn upon or consulted Wooddeson's Lectures, Kent's Commentaries, Guise's Digest, Stephens' Pleadings, Gould's Pleadings, the Legal Outlines of Mr. Hoffman of Baltimore, Jones on Bailment, Graham's Practice, and Hilliard's Digest. The work is mainly composed of the materials of a course of lectures delivered by the author in 1840 and 1841, to members of the New York Law School. It is well calculated to give citizens a clear insight into the first principles and general scope of an interesting science, and must, therefore, be found acceptable, not merely to students in law, but also to the merchant and general reader.

- 5.—*Cobb's New Spelling Book, in Six Parts.* New York : Caleb Bartlett. 1842.

This work, in nearly all its characteristic or leading features, differs not only from Mr. Cobb's former Spelling Book, but from all other spelling books. The great object of the compiler of this work seems to have been to class the words in such a manner that the difficulties and perplexities in learning the orthography of our language would be greatly lessened, if not entirely remedied.

Without intentional disparagement, we must, in candor, say that we do not find in this work the striking difficulties and hindrances which meet the scholar at almost every step in his progress through the other spelling books with which we are acquainted. In them we find various diphthongs, having the same sound ; as *ee* in *deed*, *ea* in *plead* ; *ie* in *chief* ; *au* in *laud*, and *aw* in *bawl* ; *ai* in *fail*, and *ay* in *play*, &c.—different terminations sounding alike, as *farce* and *parse* ; *mortar*, *enter*, *nadir*, *tutor*, *martyr* ; *table* and *shovel* ; *riem* and *prison*, &c.—single and double consonants, as *atom* and *bottom*, *limit* and *summit*, *ripple* and *triple*, *habit* and *rabbit*, &c.—different consonants or combinations of consonants sounding alike, as single *f* in *mischieff*, *ff* in *tariff*, *gh* in *enough*, and *ph* in *paragraph*, all ending with the sound of *f* ; *c* in *cider* and *s* in *silent*, both beginning with the sound of *si* ; *cion* in *coercion*, *sion* in *pension*, *tion* in *motion*, all ending with the sound of *shun*, &c. &c.—these, and a great variety of other equally perplexing anomalies, are promiscuously intermingled ; while in the work before us they are all separately and minutely classed, by which the great obstacles in the way of learning to spell are entirely removed, or, at least, greatly lessened.

- 6.—*Uncle Sam's Recommendation of Phrenology to his millions of friends in the United States.* In a series of not very dull letters. 18mo. pp. 801. New York : Harper & Brothers. 1842.

These letters, without place, date, and address at the top, or signature at the bottom, are certainly "not very dull," but rather amusing and instructive withal, and will amply repay the perusal. The volume is divided into forty-four letters, each treating of different subjects, in harmony with the author's design ; with such titles as "The Why and Wherefore of writing," "How Phrenology gets along," "A File of Fine Fellows," "The Greatest of the Graces," "Reasons why Phrenology is likely to be true," "Our Great Men," "Advantages of Phrenology," etc.

- 7.—*Sermons, and Sketches of Sermons.* By the Rev. JOHN SUMMERFIELD, A. M., late a preacher in connection with the Methodist Episcopal Church ; with an Introduction by the Rev. THOMAS E. BOND, M. D. 8vo. pp. 437. New York : Harper and Brothers.

Few preachers have been more successful or popular than Summerfield ; for a brief space he enchained immense audiences by the more than magic influence of an eloquence, as peculiar in its character as it was universal in its control over the minds of men. There is a simplicity of style in these sermons and sketches which cannot fail of making its way to the heart, as certainly as pompous diction and parade of language and learning shuts up every avenue to the feelings.

- 8.—*An Exposition of the Creed.* By JOHN PEARSON, D. D., late Lord Bishop of Chester. With an Appendix, containing the principal Greek and Latin Creeds. Revised by the Rev. W. S. DOBSON, A. M. 8vo. pp. 616. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

The friends of the Episcopal Church in the United States are deeply indebted to the enterprising publishers of this volume for the various contributions they have made to our theological literature. Of this edition of Pearson on the Creed, embodied in one beautiful octavo volume, the following are stated by the reverend editor as the peculiar advantages. "First—Great care has been taken to correct the numerous errors in the references to the texts of Scripture, which had crept in by reason of the repeated editions through which this admirable work has passed; and many references, as will be seen on turning to the index of texts, have been added.—Secondly; The quotations in the notes have been almost universally identified and the references to them adjoined.—Lastly; The principal Symbola, or Creeds, of which the particular articles have been cited by the author, have been annexed; and wherever the original writers have given the Symbola in a scattered and disjointed manner, the detached parts have been brought into a successive and connected point of view. These have been added in chronological order in the form of an appendix."

- 9.—*Age of the World, as founded on the Sacred Records, historic and prophetic: and the "Signs of the Times," viewed in the aspect of premonitions of the speedy establishment on the earth of the Millennial State, by the second, personal, pre-millennial advent of Christ: with an introductory essay, vindicating the claims of Sacred Chronology against the cavils of the atheist, antiquarian, and infidel.* By the Rev. R. C. SHIMEALL, of the Protestant Episcopal Church, author of Scriptural and Ecclesiastical Charts, etc. 12mo. pp. 364. New York: Swords, Stanford & Co., and the Author, 47 Amos-street.

These pages originally formed three lectures, which were delivered by the author at the Apollo Rooms, in New York, on the Sunday evenings of December 25th, 1841, and January 2d and 23d, 1842. Mr. Shimeall is learned in sacred lore, and particularly in chronology; and the volume before us evinces great ingenuity and research; but it is not our province or design to discuss the merits of the peculiar opinions which he entertains, but merely to call the attention of all who take any interest in the subject to the work; and we would at the same time, from a personal knowledge of the author, express our entire confidence in the purity of his motives and the honesty of his views, which are here disclosed with so much force and eloquence.

- 10.—*The Missionary's Daughter, or Memoir of Lucy Goodale Thurston, of the Sandwich Islands.* 18mo. pp. 231. New York: Dayton & Newman.

The subject of this memoir was the child of one of our oldest missionaries in the far off isles of the seas. It is stated in the narrative that she was among the first of the children of the missionaries who have been retained at a missionary station to so mature an age; and notwithstanding all the disadvantages of her isolated situation, attained a high degree of mental cultivation; and gave living and dying evidence of the purity of her life, and the sincerity of her piety. At the age of seventeen she landed upon the shores of her fatherland, with the expectation of enjoying for a season the refinements of civilization, and institutions of the Christian religion; but within three weeks after her arrival she found a place in our sepulchres. Besides the memoir, the volume contains a variety of information connected with the discovery, manners, habits, etc., of the Sandwich Islands.

- 11.—*Kabooa; or the Warriors of the West: A Tale of the Last War.* By Mrs. ANNA L. SNELLING. New York: Printed for the Publisher by D. Adee. 1842.

The scenes of this narrative are laid in the country bordering on Lakes Michigan, Erie, and St. Clair. While the novelists of the present day are directing the attention of the curious to the past history of the eastern states, our fair countrywoman is of opinion, "that the many romantic and wonderful incidents abounding in the far and fertile west, scarcely arouse the curiosity of the many enlightened minds who exhaust their talents in recording events familiar to every well-read person." Impressed with this fact, Mrs. S. has taken up her pen, and wielded it with considerable effect in her delineations of western scenery, the Indian character, habits, pursuits, etc. Inasmuch as we desire to foster a national literature, we trust that every effort directed to that object may meet with an appropriate consideration from a patriotic people.

- 12.—*Italy and the Italian Islands, from the earliest Ages to the present Time.* By WILLIAM SPALDING, Esq., Professor of Rhetoric in the University of Edinburgh—with engravings and illustrative notes and maps. Vols. 151–153, Harpers' Family Library

This work is republished from the Edinburgh Cabinet Library, and the appearance of a book in that connection is, of itself, no small recommendation. Its plan is similar to that of the other historical works in this very able series—embracing so much of the history of the country as will afford a clear and comprehensive view of the most remarkable events, together with a particular description of its physical features, antiquities, &c., and an account of its civil and religious institutions, of the character and customs of the people, the condition of society, &c. &c. In this manner a very complete picture of the country and of its inhabitants is given. Italy has been illustrious in every period of her history—whether anciently, as the conqueror of the world; in the middle ages, as nobly asserting the principles of civil liberty; or in more modern times, as the nursery of literature and the arts. No country, therefore, has greater claims upon our attention, and the instruction afforded by these excellent volumes will amply reward the reader.

- 13.—*Pathology, founded on the Natural System of Anatomy and Physiology; A Philosophical Sketch, in which the natural classification of diseases, and the distinctions between morbid and curative symptoms, afforded by pain or its absence, are pointed out, etc.* By ALEXANDER WALKER, author of 'Intermarriage,' 'Woman,' 'Beauty,' &c. New York: J. H. & G. Langley. 1842.

Mr. Walker is well known to the reading and medical public, by several works he has written, and within a few years put forth. The present is one that will add to his reputation as a brilliant, if not a profound, medical philosopher. It has been argued against him that his induction is not sufficiently copious to warrant the conclusions that he draws from his facts; but no one, we think, can deny him the credit of great ingenuity, as well as honesty. His division of symptoms into morbid and curative is not, in the opinion of some medical critics, as original as the doctor supposes. It is asserted that the same distinction has been already made in the writings of Galen. Although decidedly opposed to the doctrines of Hanne-mann, he meets them with considerable fairness and candor. We would recommend our medical polemics generally to imitate his example, and depend more upon argument and less upon simple unsustained assertion.

- 14.—*A Dictionary of Science, Literature, and Art.* Comprising the History, Description, and Scientific Principles of every branch of Human Knowledge; with derivations and definitions of all the terms in general use. Illustrated with engravings on wood. Edited by W. T. BRANDE, F. R. S. L. & E. of Her Majesty's mint, etc., assisted by JOURNAL CAUVIN, Esq. 8vo. New York: Wiley and Putnam. 1842.

The first number of this new dictionary is before us; and is to be continued in monthly numbers of fifty-six royal octavo pages. The great condensation of space obtained by the type employed, which, although small, is sufficiently clear for a book of reference, gives to each number reading matter equal in quantity to an ordinary sized novel of two volumes. The work will be comprised in 1,500 pages, which, with larger type and the usual octavo page, might be spread over twenty octavo volumes.

- 15.—*Godfrey Mahern, or the Life of the Author.* By THOMAS MILLER, author of 'Gideon Giles,' 'Rural Sketches,' 'A Day in the Woods,' etc. New York: W. A. Le Blanc.

We have received the first number of this new tale of Miller, the Basket-maker, which is to be completed in fifteen monthly parts, with two illustrations in each. We agree with the editor of the London Times, that as a minute and tasteful painter of scenery, both in reference to the quietude of sylvan nature and the portraiture of humanity in its various positions, Miller cannot be surpassed at the present day; he has, in fact, most carefully looked to nature in all her variety, and he is happily gifted with a power of perception not often possessed. He feels strongly, and writes forcibly.

- 16.—*Contributions to Academic Literature.* By CHARLES H. LYON, A. M., one of the principals of Irving Institute. 12mo. pp. 144. New York: H. & S. Raynor. 1842.

The pieces in this little volume are generally well suited to the purposes of declamation; and they have at least one merit over the compiled selections in general use, however excellent in other respects—that of freshness. The subjects are generally well chosen, and as specimens of literary effort are highly creditable to the genius and scholarship of the author.

- 17.—*The American in Egypt, and Rambles through Arabia Petraea, and the Holy Land; during the years 1839–40.* By J. E. COOLEY.

We have looked over the proof-sheets of a work with the above title, which is shortly to issue from the press of D. Appleton & Co. It is rich in incidents of travel, and embraces a vast fund of information touching the countries through which the author passed, the manners, customs, and present condition of the people. Mr. Cooley is an acute observer and graphic limner, and possesses a most remarkable knowledge of human nature, its springs and motives; and judging from long personal acquaintance, and the portions of the work we have read, we are willing to risk our reputation on the opinion, that it will command a popularity and sale equal at least to Stephens' Travels in Central America. It is written in a clear, chaste, natural, and unaffected style, and illustrated with a great number of fine engravings. The typography of the work surpasses any thing we have yet seen from the American press.

- 18.—*Lectures to Young People.* By DORUS CLARKE, Pastor of the Congregational Church, Chickopee Factory Village. With an Introduction by the Rev. AMOS BLANCHARD. New York: Saxton & Miles. 1842.

These lectures were prepared with the desire to promote the intellectual, moral, and religious improvement of the young people of the author's pastoral charge; and at the solicitation of the young men before whom they were delivered, they were given to the public. The volume contains eight lectures, devoted to the following subjects:—Importance of the period of Youth—Intellectual cultivation—Established and correct religious principles—Dangers of young people—Origin, obligation, and proper observance of the Sabbath—Morality necessary, but insufficient to Salvation—Personal piety—Life of active usefulness. The author is a moderate Calvinist, and the lectures of course partake of his views.

- 19.—*Gazetteer of the State of New York:* Comprising its Topography, Geology, Mineralogical Resources, Civil Divisions, Canals, Railroads, and Public Institutions; together with general statistics: the whole alphabetically arranged. Also statistical tables, including the Census of 1840, and tables of distances, with a new map of the State, etc. 12mo. pp. 480. J. Disturnell. 1842.

In the collection and compilation of the information embraced in the pages of this Gazetteer, Mr. Disturnell "not only resorted to the most authentic resources, referring to similar works which have been published, of a like character, but also availed himself of the assistance of several competent persons of acknowledged talent and judgment." It has several advantages over Goddard's voluminous Gazetteer of this State, published in 1835; it is more comprehensive, the statistics more recent, and the price some fifty or sixty per cent less.

- 20.—*A Treatise on the Education of Daughters.* Translated from the French of Fenelon. New York: Saxton & Miles. 1842.

This admirable treatise of the good Archbishop of Cambray, furnishes no slight evidence of his exalted genius and rational piety; who, though a prelate of the Catholic Church in the seventeenth century, has left in his numerous writings so few sentiments in the least degree uncongenial to the taste and judgment of the liberal and enlightened Christian of the present age. We thank the enterprising publishers for furnishing the public with so neat and cheap an edition of a work so excellent in itself and so universally popular.

- 21.—*The Book of Psalms:* being the authorized version of that part of the Sacred volume, metrically arranged by JAMES NURSE. New York: Saxton & Miles. 1842.

It will be pleasing to every careful reader of the 'Psalms of David,' to find them metrically arranged, and printed in the form of the original. It is a very neat and cheap edition.

- 22.—*Letters to the Young.* By MARIA JANE JEWSEBURY. Saxton & Miles. 1842.

This is a third American edition of a very popular series of letters on religious subjects. They comprise a real, and not fictitious correspondence, and although designed for individual characters and cases, they admit of a less restricted application.

23.—*A Commentary on the Bankrupt Law of 1841, showing its operation and effect.* By GEORGE BICKNELL, JR., member of the Bar of New York. 8vo. pp. 100. Gould, Banks & Co. 1842.

This pamphlet treats of bankruptcy in general—bankrupts voluntary and involuntary—of the proceedings prior to the decree of bankruptcy—of the consequences of the decree—of proceedings subsequent to the decree—of the bankrupt's discharge—of partnership bankruptcy, etc. Appended to the treatise is an authentic copy of the bankrupt act, with an appendix of persons and a table of fees. It appears to be a very clear and succinct treatise on the subject, and will, we should think, prove useful, not only to the legal profession, but to merchants and all interested in the operation of the bankrupt law.

ORANGE COUNTY INSTITUTE.

We have some personal knowledge of the worthy principal referred to in the following communication, and we heartily concur in the views of the writer:—

*“Mr. Editor—*Among the many excellent institutions for the education of youth in our land, each contending with generous emulation for the favor and approbation of the public, there is none which has stood the ordeal of time with greater credit to itself than the Orange County Institution. This seminary is located upon the banks of the Hudson, near the flourishing village of Newburgh, enjoying the retirement of the country and the convenience of a large and populous town. It is in one of the most healthful and delightful districts in the United States, and its facility of access, being only four hours' sail from the city of New York, makes it a most desirable location. Its indefatigable and zealous principal, the Rev. Samuel Phinney, devotes himself most industriously and conscientiously to the reponsible duties of his station.

“I speak from personal knowledge, having had for years past several pupils under my guardianship committed to his care. I have attended many of the examinations of this school, and have always been delighted with the apparent success with which the teacher insists upon the principle that what the pupil learns he should learn well.

“It has doubtless been an important advantage in the successful progress of this school, that its principal was once an assistant to the celebrated Dr. Allen, of Hyde Park, one of the most useful and successful teachers of our country. Nor is it the smallest commendation of this school, that the pupils, in leaving the parental roof, here find what is not always to be met with in boarding-schools, a mother's tender care and supervision. Having enjoyed abundant opportunity to observe the attention paid to the formation of the mind and manners of the pupils, their advancement in learning and good principles, I feel that I am only discharging my duty in commending it to the favorable notice of my fellow citizens as one of the excellent institutions of the land.”

¶ THE present number closes the sixth half-yearly volume of this work. The first six volumes, handsomely bound, forming a valuable library of reference, can be had at the subscription price, by applying at the office of the Merchants' Magazine, 142 Fulton street, New York. Subscribers can have their numbers neatly bound at fifty cents per volume, by sending them to this office.

Office of the Merchants' Magazine, }
June, 1842. }



